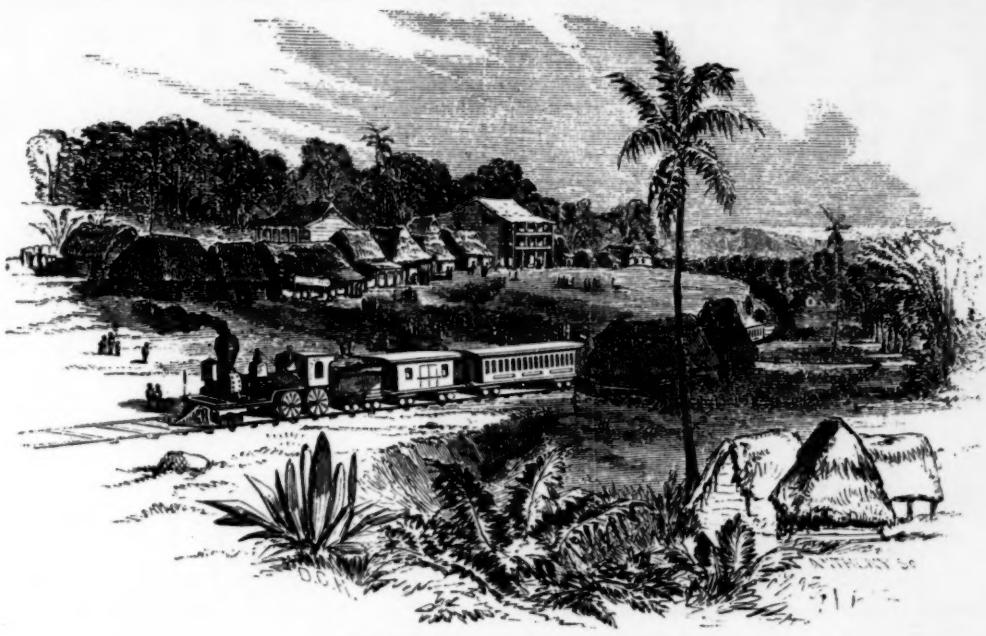


The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume II.
Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, NOVEMBER, 1910.

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THE RAMPART OF PANAMA.

Views on the Isthmus of Panama in 1855. See page 59.

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The Teaching of Slavery

BY PROFESSOR ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

"The fathers have eaten sour grapes and the teeth of the children are set on edge." That is an aphorism which may be commended to all writers of history, and especially to the authors of text books. The time for indiscriminate praise of all things American has long since gone by. The Greeks had some sense in their boredom at hearing so much about Aristides the Just; they wanted to hear of the Real Aristides, the man who saved two obols by carrying his own turkey home in a basket, like John Marshall, the Aristides who was always buying lottery tickets and losing on them, like George Washington. The Sanford and Merton type of school history is out of date—no boy, or man, or nation was ever good all the time; and it would be discouraging to the people who must do the political work of the world nowadays if they were expected to be impeccable "Fathers of the Constitution."

The object of the history teacher, however, is not to depreciate nor to decry, but to dwell upon the noble and elevating in human affairs; in such an effort the teacher is at once met with a new difficulty. The effort to be noble and great consists usually, in getting away from ignoble and petty conditions. The majesty of Abraham Lincoln is not simply his greatness, but his ultimate character and influence as compared with the depressing surroundings of his youth. How can you put Lincoln among the lofty of the world without bringing to the child's mind the truth that people who have the inward spring can come out from discouraging and demoralizing things about them? Lincoln's early life was on the whole distressing; his early love affairs were callow and moon-struck; his one term in Congress brought him little or no reputation; yet in the study of his whole life we have the same elevating power as in the career of the heroes of the Old Testament—the Jacobs and the Davids who wrought great things, notwithstanding weaknesses of character.

In the national life, as in personal life, it is not worth while to describe the unlovely and cruel for the mere sake of narrative; Charles Francis Adams, when he was writing his book on "Three Episodes in Massachusetts History," declared that he had never been so happy in his life, because he had been "destroying people's ideals." Perhaps it is discouraging to learn that the old Puritans had their weaknesses and their falls; but after all the main thing that the world remembers about the Puritans is not their imperfections, so much as the things they accomplished; the commonwealths they builded; the virtues they taught their children; the sense of duty to man, commonwealth and God. The temptations of this poor soul, the sins of that one, are small matters compared with the effect of the little leaven that leavened the whole lump.

On the other hand, nothing is to be gained by setting forth the Puritans as a perfect folk, or trying to smooth away the fact that they were sometimes cruel and frequently

bigoted. When Mrs. Hutchinson and Roger Williams were driven out from the commonwealth for holding views shared by some of the most pious of the clergy, and with difficulty distinguished from the orthodox faith by the keenest theologians, Massachusetts lost something that never came back. It is just so with the witchcraft episode. The New England Puritans cannot be singled out for believing in witches, at a time when the belief was common throughout the Catholic and Protestant world; nor for punishing supposed witches in the same way that they were sometimes punished in other colonies. On the other hand, some of the actors in that tragedy, like Justice Sewall, felt that they had been carried away by an hysterical epidemic; if they were sorry for their hard hearts, surely later generations may wish that their forefathers had shown more mercy and common sense.

The same principle of examining into the springs of motive, of trying to discover the performance of our ancestors as compared with their standard, may be applied to other parts of the country besides New England, and especially to the question of African slavery. On one side stand the excuses for the system; the need of developing the country; the difficulty of securing white laborers; the share of New England and the middle colonies in the slave trade; the evangelization of the captives; the similitude between chattel slavery and the forms of indentured servitude which were familiar throughout the British colonies; the honest interest in and affection for their slaves felt by many slave owners; the complexity of the situation and the danger arising from an anti-slavery propaganda. All this is clear enough, and may be illustrated to any extent from the literature of the subject.

On the other side stands the iniquity of the whole system: it was contrary to the principles of English law, to the English experience of the colonists; to the rights of man; to the religious teaching of the time; to the material interests of the colonies in the long run. The slave trade brought woe unspeakable to Africa; and throughout its existence was thickly studded with barbarous incidents. Slavery itself was founded on cruelty, for in the long run it went back to the physical control of one person by another, whose restraint might go to any length of torture, or of death. There is no use in blinking the fact that African slavery was unnatural in America; introduced by an artificial process; fostered by the home government; profitable to the slave trader and the planter alike; but from the first bringing in demoralizing influences upon the land.

In dealing with this subject in school books it is impossible to ignore the existence of slavery and equally impossible to leave out of account the tremendous torsion which the rivalry between free and slave labor brought upon the public conscience and eventually upon the American Government. From the Association of 1774 down to the recent Maryland Constitution Amendment, the history of our country

has abounded in controversies which arose directly out of slavery. Nobody can study the Federal Convention without some notion whether slavery was right or wrong, desirable or undesirable, fixed or removable. The consensus of the opinion of civilized people throughout the world is now that human slavery is wrong in the sight of God and harmful to the community. Hardly a thoughtful man in the South to-day would say that he would like to see slavery re-established; emancipation has been a boon to the South, because it has not only set free the black man from his bondage, but relieved the white man from an unnatural and impossible responsibility.

Nevertheless there are still writers in the South who bid young people remember that slavery was right: the foundation of this appeal from the twentieth century to the eighteenth is doubtless that the children are to be taught to revere their fathers and grandfathers; and that it would be a shock if they supposed that those fathers and grandfathers had supported a vicious social system. But why are we grandchildren if it is not that we may profit by the mistakes of our forbears? A generation ago nobody protested against putting children into the grinding work of mills and mines; but now most people who have not a pecuniary interest in it, agree that it is the most expensive sort of labor, because it diminishes the average productive force of the community by degrading and demoralizing the laborer. Are the children of the next generation to be taught that child labor was

estimable, that it brought about agreeable relations between mill owners and the hands; that it helped to build up family life and to create a common interest? So with slavery, must the community forever be bound to the body of this death, when it has outgrown and discarded the institution which was tried and found wanting?

The right way to treat slavery is simply the truthful way; let us make clear that it was a bad system because out of accord with the spirit of humanity, the spirit of popular government and the spirit of Christianity; that the results were bad for both races; that it had a bad effect on everybody that touched it, as master, as slave-owner, or as members of a slave-holding country. Let us recognize that the current of emancipation (which began with the act of Vermont in 1777), was a reasonable protest, which ought to have run through all the States, including the South.

On the other hand it is equally necessary to make it clear that the slave-owners were enmeshed in a complication, out of which they finally knew not how to escape; that slavery was not all, or in large part, made up of cruelty; that there was much good will and even affection between master and chattel. Nevertheless the great lesson is that it was a good thing for the whole country, and worth even the awful cost of the Civil War, once and for all to make universal in this free country that system of free labor which fits in with the American belief in free government and confidence in free salvation.

How to Conduct a Lecture Course in History

EXTRACTS FROM AN ARTICLE UPON "THE TEACHING OF ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY,"*
BY PROFESSOR H. M. GWATKIN, OF CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.

Our chief aims in the practical teaching of history are three—to rouse interest, to give the guiding facts, and to teach the principles of research and criticism which enable men not only to become their own teachers, but to return and see for themselves how far we rightly gave them the guiding facts. And these three aims are in their natural order. In the case of children, we seek chiefly to rouse their interest, though we give them the simpler guiding facts, and tell them in simple cases where we get them and how we sift them. Our teaching must look forward from the first, and lay foundations for the future. A little further on, the stress falls chiefly on the guiding facts, though neither of the other aims can be neglected. At a third stage, even the ripest of our scholars will thank us for keeping up their interest and giving them fresh guiding facts, though our chief endeavour will be to teach them the methods of criticism and research. The most advanced teaching must always lean on and look back to the elementary things; and these must always stand out clearly from the rest, and be emphasized so far as may be needed to prevent our scholars from losing themselves in a maze of detail.

The teacher must therefore keep all these three aims always more or less in view. The characteristic difference between elementary and advanced teaching is not in the amount of detail, but in the relative prominence of these different aims. Advanced teaching need not always be detailed teaching. It may very well be a mere summary of the teacher's own results, which the students are to test by working out the details for themselves under his general guidance. Just as the teacher who has not learning enough spoils his outline

by his imperfect grasp of the details underlying it, so the teacher who has more learning than he can manage thinks it enough to pile up details without bringing out clearly the important points. The one mistake is about as bad as the other; and it is quite possible to commit both at once.

The two chief methods of teaching are by lectures and by papers. Each has its own advantages. Lectures are (or ought to be) fresher and more interesting, and the best means of opening out new ideas; while papers are better suited to follow them up (not at once, but after an interval) and to test and strengthen the student's grasp of his work. Thus (as we shall see more fully later on) the two methods call for somewhat different faculties in the teacher, so that while both methods ought to be used, the individual teacher may fairly lean a little to that for which he feels best qualified. Within certain limits, the work he can do best is the best work he can do for his pupils.

The first thing to be done in lecturing is to get a clear plan for the lecture. This plan may vary greatly from lecture to lecture; but it should always be carefully chosen. It must be simple, and it ought to give a natural arrangement of the matter in hand. Thus the political history of Western Europe for some time after the treaty of Utrecht may be gathered round the efforts of Spain to recover her lost possessions in Italy; and the physical geography of Spain herself will map out well her eight hundred years of conflict with the Moors. But whatever the plan may be, it must be strictly carried out. Digressions are useful enough, and may even form the chief part of the lecture. But any serious digression ought to be planned out beforehand, and all digression must be kept firmly subject to the peremptory condition that

* Reprinted from "Essays on the Teaching of History" with the permission of G. P. Putnam's Sons, American representatives of the Cambridge University Press.

there never be a moment's doubt where the thread of the plan is left, and where it is taken up again.

The arrangement of the lecture needs care. The heads should stand out boldly, and there should not be too many of them. If more than five seem wanted, let some of them be grouped together. Even the subdivisions must be clear, and clearly distinguished from the larger headings. If only the arrangement is quite clear, it is none the worse for being a little formal. The wording, on the other hand, should be elastic. Critical sentences will need careful study; but in general, the more freely we speak the better. Half the battle is to watch the class and keep in touch with it, and catch the inspirations of the moment without digressing at random.

The delivery should be slow, so that students may be able to take down most of what is said; and an occasional pause (not merely after a critical sentence) will be a help. If the voice is quickened, it should be an understood sign that students are for the moment to take nothing down. Bad lectures are more commonly made bad by quick speaking, want of pauses, and consequent overpress of details than by faulty arrangement. The young and zealous teacher goes too quickly, doing work for his class which they ought to do for themselves, and crowding his lectures with details better learned from books. The old lecturer who knows his ground and has forgotten his own early difficulties also goes too quickly, throwing down valuable hints for his best men, and leaving the rest to find their way as they can. I have heard of lectures where every word was gold-dust, which yet were largely thrown away, because nobody could take good notes of them. Near akin to quick speaking is another disorderly habit. A lecturer ought not commonly to need a wheelbarrow for his books: and it is a bad sign if he goes home laden like a beast of burden.

How about notes for the lecturer's own use? Some speak without notes; and this is an excellent plan, but only for those who are perfectly sure of themselves. The risk is very great of forgetting parts of the plan, of breaking down in trying to frame critical sentences, or of being tempted into imprudent digressions. Others write out everything, and simply read their notes; and this is commonly fatal. The more our eyes are on the class and the less on notes the better. Lectures must be spoken, not read; and the power to read a manuscript as if it were freshly spoken is one of hard attainment. In its absence, nothing but rare excellence can keep a read lecture from becoming a soporific. The best way is to take in notes full enough to remind us of our plan and help us through any sentences that have to be worded with special care, but not full enough to tempt us into the fatal error of reading them. If these notes are carefully drawn they may with advantage be laid on the table for inspection as soon as the lecture is over. The younger students in particular will learn method from them in the most effective way.

This then seems to be the ideal of a lecture:—plan clear and thoughtful, arrangement clear and rather formal, delivery clear and slow, wording clear and free, but suggestive and precise. Tell your class that every phrase and every turn of a phrase is there for a purpose; and invite them to take it to pieces, and see with their own eyes and not with yours that things are well and truly stated. I am satisfied that a lecture which fairly aims at this ideal will be almost equally useful to students who differ widely in attainment. The weakest absolutely need the clear plan of the lecture to guide their reading, and will get strong encouragement from every glimpse of its deeper meaning; while even the strongest are always glad of a clean suggestive outline, full of hints for further study.

History in the Grades

The Teacher's Preparation for Introducing Daniel Boone to Pupils in the Fifth Grade

ARRANGED BY SARAH A. DYNES, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, NEW JERSEY.

Boone's Career Outlined for Teacher's Use.

- I. Boyhood, 1734-1750, spent in the valley of the Schuylkill, in Pennsylvania.
 - a. Opportunities to become acquainted with Indians and forests.
 - b. His life in his father's home and in the cabin on the cattle range to which he and his mother went every summer.
 - c. His winter hunting expeditions and the migration of the Boones to North Carolina.
- II. Boone's life on the Yadkin, in North Carolina, 1750-1755.
 - a. Location of his father's home at Buffalo Lick, at the junction of Dutchman's Creek with north branch of Yadkin.
 - b. His occupations.
 - (1) Farming.
 - (2) Blacksmithing.
 - (3) Hunting and trips to the East to sell skins.
 - (4) A wagoner in the baggage train of Braddock's army.
 - c. He meets John Finley, who has been a fur trader for years. (1755.)
 - (1) He learns that Kentucky is a paradise for hunters.
 - (2) He longs to become an explorer and to see Kentucky.
 - (3) He learns that there is a Cumberland Gap.
 - d. He marries Rebecca Bryan when he is twenty-one years of age. (1755.)

III. His life in his own home on the border before he becomes a popular hero. (1755-1774.)

- a. His occupations.
- b. His wife's occupations.
- c. Amusements and sports of border life.
- d. The cabins.
 - (1) Their structure and size.
 - (2) Their furnishings.
- e. His journeys of exploration.
 - (1) On horseback to Florida. 1765. Explored the region from St. Augustine to Pensacola.
 - (2) Crossed the mountain wall into the valleys of the Holston and the Clinch. Went down West Fork of Big Sandy River, 100 miles hoping to find Ohio River, and spent a winter in Eastern Kentucky, but did not know that it was Kentucky. (1767-8.)
 - (3) May and June, 1769, entered Kentucky by way of Cumberland Gap, John Finley acting as guide. He remains in Kentucky 2 years. (1769-1771.)
 - (4) He attempts to lead a party of settlers to Kentucky in 1773, but they were attacked by Indians and did not resume the journey.
- f. Boone did not return to the Yadkin, but made a new home on the Clinch.
 - (1) He is placed in command of military posts, and becomes known as the "Hero of Clinch Valley."
 - (2) In 1774 Gov. Dunmore sends him to Kentucky to

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protect a band of surveyors on their return from Kentucky. He was absent sixty-two days and traveled 800 miles on foot.

- (3) In 1775 Henderson employed him to mark out a path for settlers to Kentucky. "The Transylvania Col."
- (4) In 1777 he is captured by Indians while procuring meat for salt-makers and detained four and a half months.

IV. Boone, the hero. (1777-1799.)

- a. After siege of Boonesborough, September 7-18, 1788, he is advanced to rank of Major.
- b. He serves as soldier and statesman for years.
- c. He acts as pilot and surveyor to the capitalists and speculators who are buying land in Kentucky.
- d. He procured trusty bands of rifle-men to guard new settlers from attack on their route to the West.
- e. He changes his residence often, travels long distances, visits his boyhood home. He was a trapper, a hunter, a storekeeper, hotel keeper, surveyor, pilot and the popular hero of the day.

V. Boone's serene old age. (1799-1820.)

- a. The great hunter left his home near Charleston, in the Kanawha region in 1799 to join Daniel Morgan Boone, his son, in the Louisiana district about forty-five miles by water from the present site of St. Louis, Mo.
- b. He is now a pioneer for the fourth and last time—builds a cabin (largely his own work) near his son's estate. Here he was given a judicial office which he held until the United States took possession of the purchase.
- c. At seventy years of age he was still a successful trapper and made long trips accompanied by a relative or camp boy to secure beaver skins. He returns to Kentucky to pay his debts in 1810.
- d. After the death of his wife in 1813, he lived with his sons, but every winter took long hunting trips. He died at the home of his son, Nathan, (September 26, 1820,) who owned the first stone house in Missouri. The Constitutional Convention of Missouri then in session, ordered mourning to be worn for twenty days.
- e. He was buried beside his wife upon the bank of Teuge Creek, one mile from the Missouri River. In 1845 the Kentucky legislature gained permission to remove his remains to Frankfort, Kentucky, where a monument was erected to his memory in 1880.

The preceding outline of the main events in Boone's life arranged in chronological order is to aid the teacher—to help her see at a glance into what period in our nation's history each portion of Boone's life fits. It is not suitable for children who are unfamiliar with the historic background and for whom dates and bare statement of fact are quite without meaning.

Boone's Personality.

The Rev. John M. Peck's description of Daniel Boone as he saw him in December, 1818: "The preceding day had been spent in the settlement of Femmes Osage, where Mr. Callaway, with whom Boone lived, met and accompanied the writer to Charette village, a French hamlet situated on the north side of the Missouri River, adjacent to which was his residence. On his introduction to Col. Boone, the impressions were those of surprise, admiration and delight. In boyhood he had read of Daniel Boone, the pioneer of Kentucky, the celebrated hunter and Indian fighter, and imagination had portrayed a rough, fierce-looking, uncouth specimen of humanity, and, of course, at this period of life a fretful and unattractive old man. But in every respect the reverse appeared. His high, bold forehead was slightly bald, and his silvered locks were combed smooth; his countenance was ruddy and fair, and exhibited the simplicity of a child. His voice was soft and melodious. A smile frequently played over his features in conversation at repeated intervals; an irritable expression was never heard. His clothing was the coarse, plain manufacture of the family; but everything about him denoted that kind of comfort which was congenial to his habits and feelings, and evinced a happy old age. His room was part of a range of log cabins, kept in order by his affectionate daughter and grand-daughters."

References for Teacher's Use.

Hart, Albert Bushnell, Ed. American History told by contemporaries. 4 vols. New York. The Macmillan Co. 1898-1901. 8vo.

Vol. II, "The Building of the Republic (1689-1783)," contains a reprint of Filson's Adventures of Col. Daniel Boone (e).

Sparks, Jared. Library of American Biography, second series. Vol. XIII. Daniel Boone, pioneer and early settler of Kentucky, by J. M. Peck. Boston. Charles C. Little and James Brown, 1843. 16mo.

Pages 7 to 203 of this volume contain "The Life of Daniel Boone," which though short is one of the best, showing much original research and thought.

Sparks, Edwin Erle. The Expansion of the American People, Social and Territorial. Chicago. Scott, Foresman & Co. 1900. 12mo. Contains much concerning Daniel Boone.

Roosevelt, Theodore. The Winning of the West. 4 vols. New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889-96. 8vo.

A store-house of facts concerning Daniel Boone and the early Northwest.

NOTE.—The most valuable collections of Boone material are to be found in the library of Col. Reuben T. Durrett, at Louisville, Ky., and among the papers and manuscripts of the late Lyman C. Draper, of Madison, Wisconsin, now in the possession of the Wisconsin Historical Society. Thwaites, in writing his recent biography of Boone, had access to these collections. Hulbert in Vol. VI. of his "Historic Highways," entitled "Boone's Wilderness Road," had access to these collections also. Both these works are within the reach of every teacher and are most suggestive and helpful.

References for Children's Use.

Tappan. American Hero Stories. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pages 200-207 are devoted to Boone.

Incidents well chosen and told in a clear, forcible manner, with Miss Tappan's usual charm. The selection contains a picture of Boone.

Baldwin. Barnes' Elementary History of the U. S. American Book Co.

Pages 213-221 are devoted to Boone, and contain four pictures and a map.

Mace. Primary History of the U. S. Rand & McNally, contains a biographical sketch of Boone and good suggestive questions and maps.

Brigham. From Trail to Railway. Ginn & Co. Pages 142-154, chapter XII, contains six pictures and a helpful map.

McMaster. A Primary History of the U. S. The American Book Co. Page 134 contains map and pictures of weapons.

Illustrative Material.

Moore, Chas. The Northwest Under Three Flags. New York. Harper & Bros. 1900. 8vo.

Numerous references to Daniel Boone, contains a photo-reproduction of the painting of Boone by Chester Harding, now owned by W. H. King, of Chicago.

Powell, Lyman P. American Historic Towns: Historic Towns of the Southern States. New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900. 8vo. Contains numerous references to Boone, also a reproduction of the painting of Boone in the possession of Col. R. T. Durrett, of Louisville.

Suggestions as to Method.

In all informal discussions and in the incidents narrated or the descriptions of situations, the teacher will bear in mind that the interest of the pupils in general will be in action. That any persons introduced must be clearly and impressively presented. If they are worth introducing, they must become acquaintances, at least, if they become friends, so much the better. The place and the time of the incident are both important. The place must be found on a map; all must see it. A route must be traced, and its difficulties, hardships or pleasures must be made real. The time must be fixed not by years, but in connection with what went before or after or at the time when a boy was ten years of age, or when a man was forty—something that is a time measuring unit for a child. The year 1734 or 1750 or 1763 is significant to a teacher, but these dates are meaningless and mere symbols which symbolize nothing to the child. The writer once asked a class of children, ranging in age from eleven to twelve to tell her what a line of printed matter

at the top of a chart meant. The line was this: "Death of Julius Caesar, 44 B. C." They were reading stories of the Romans in Britain. Several hands were raised. The first pupil called upon said, "I think that B. C. means Boadicea and Caesar." The second said, "I think it means before civilization." The third one said, "I think it means that Julius Caesar died forty-four years before Christ was born." The time sense develops slowly in children. A year is comprehensible. When grandfather was a boy has significance for them. When they are older the dates will take care of themselves, provided other elements of the historical sense have been developed while in the lower grades. Now is the time to make strong appeals to their concrete imagination and their enthusiasm for brave, heroic deeds done by real men and in the forms comprehensible to them. The imagination and the power of inference run parallel. If children can realize the scenes and the situations, they will infer readily. Naturally their inferences will show but little critical power at first. That is to be expected. Their power to make legitimate inferences can be improved by tactful, skillful questioning. Children in the fifth grade have not fully mastered the mechanical difficulties of reading. There is considerable physical strain connected with the eye adjustments. They can get more from the lips of a teacher than from a book, even if it is an easy one. Consequently, most of the work should be oral.

This will tax the memory and strengthen it also if the teaching is of a high order. Details must be grouped about a central incident that they may be remembered better. The teacher must be constantly on guard not to introduce too many details. A few well-chosen ones are better than a score, even though each one of the score is both accurate and important. Neither the teacher nor the author knows the last word about Daniel Boone, and there is no necessity of trying to teach even all one knows. The chief thing is to arouse an interest in Boone that will keep on growing and to point the way to further knowledge concerning him. Emphasize cause and effect in the narratives because this certainly assists the memory. If each story is told in dramatized form, it will be easier to remember. But the all essential thing is to be sure that it is understood; not only the words but the ideas must be comprehended. Children's sense of the social unit can be greatly increased by the study of this striking heroic character in the various social groups to which he belonged or which he served. His life is so full of concrete action that it is easily understood by them. It is both simple and objective. All this work will help to lay an admirable foundation for the comparative and more critical work which will come later.

The sense of the truthful record may be present in this grade to the extent that the pupil will frequently ask, "is this story true;" or "did that really happen?" If the teacher says "Yes," or "No," he is quite willing to accept her answer as final. Or if he reads a passage which represents Daniel Boone himself as the narrator, he is apt to think that, of course, that is true. He cannot be expected to know that his so-called auto-biography was written by Filson, nor that Filson sometimes, (not often) drew upon his own imagination. On the other hand, every teacher of experience has seen some critical power in weighing evidence shown by children even younger than children of the fifth grade. Some years ago, a grade teacher, just prior to Washington's birthday said, "This morning we are going to have a story about George Washington. How many can tell me something about him?" After a show of hands, she designated a pupil, who said, "George Washington was the first man that ever lived." The teacher then said, "What makes you think so?" The boy gave as his reply: "Because we have a book at home which says Washington was first in war, first in peace and first in the hearts of his countrymen." As he sat down, another little hand was raised rather conspicuously and the teacher said, "Harold?" Harold arose and said "Washington could not have been the first man that ever lived, for we have a book at home which says Washington married a widow, so there must have been a man ahead of him." Harold was nine years of age. Any fifth grade class is likely to contain pupils of both types, and pupils whose power of inference and attitude toward evidence come in between these two. Older children who come from homes where attention has been given to the nature of proof and inferences are often capable of asking searching questions. There is no need of emphasizing this critical attitude in the fifth grade. But the teacher should be careful in her own stories not to confuse fact and fable. The legitimate place for careful criticism is not the fifth grade. It is much wiser to stress *vivid impression*. It is unwise

to hasten unduly the critical sense. But it is eminently wise to widen the pupil's field of history as fast as his experience will permit. Of course it would be easy and natural to make use of the children's collecting instinct to lead them to see the value of preserving pictures of the cabins in which Boone lived, the stone edifice in which he lived in later life with his son, Nathan, his portraits, the letters that he wrote and the statements made about him by people who knew him well, and to call their attention to the fact that Lord Byron's eulogy of him shows that his fame had reached England, before that poem could be written. That Filson's account of Boone's life sixteen years earlier shows that people wanted to know more about him than oral tradition could supply. Not every one's biography is written, and comparatively few autobiographies appear in print during the life-time of the person whose life-history is described. All this will interest them. They will be willing to hunt up pictures of forts and block houses and hunting cabins and descriptions of Daniel Boone's rifles that are really accurate, and to find out where one can see a rifle (of Boone's) to-day, and the copy of Gulliver's travels that he used in the long evenings on one of his hunting expeditions. The kind of powder horns he made for his grandsons will interest them, and the camp kettles he used will seem to them worth preserving. All this helps to develop their historical sense. Such work will stimulate their desire to express themselves and then abundant opportunity must be given them for self-expression.

Admirable descriptions of Cumberland Gap and its significance in history have been written by James Lane Allen and by Chief Justice Robertson. A good description of the routes can be found in the works of Thwaites and Hulbert mentioned above. Below is an outline for children's use in which the dates are intentionally omitted for reasons specified above. This is merely a sample of the kind of material that can be made intelligible to children:

Sample Outline for Children's Use.

BOYHOOD OF DANIEL BOONE.

- I. He lived in a frontier community in Eastern Pennsylvania, in the valley of the Schuylkill, and had an opportunity to know Indians well.
 - a. From the time he was ten years of age until he was twelve.
 - (1) He saw six looms making homespun in his father's house.
 - (2) He herded cattle on his father's cattle range from early spring until late autumn.
 - (3) He studied trees and hills and wild animals and storms and floods, but did not attend a school.
 - b. At the age of fourteen.
 - (1) His sister-in-law taught him to read and write.
 - (2) His father taught him blacksmithing, so that he could make and mend traps and repair guns.
 - (3) He was a good horseback rider then.
 - c. In his later teens he hunted winters as well as in summer.
 - (1) He supplied the family with meat and saved the hides or skins of the animals.
 - (2) Sometimes he went on horseback to Philadelphia to exchange skins for ammunition and weapons.
- II. His family moved southward 500 miles when he was sixteen and he rode all the way on horseback to help protect the women and children in the wagons from the Indians.
 - a. He was the hunter for the party also, and sometimes he kept watch at night. They took cattle with them.
 - b. He saw strange scenery as he passed through the Blue Ridge and up the beautiful valley of the Shenandoah. They forded many streams.
 - c. At their new home in the valley of the Yadkin they were on a broad elevated prairie.
 - (1) The grass was luxuriant.
 - (2) The cattle had excellent pastures.
 - (3) Fish, game, and wild fruits could be found in large quantities.
 - (4) The climate was pleasant and there was a high mountain back of them.
 - (5) Buffaloes were plentiful.

NOTE.—The outline may be in more condensed form when placed on the board for the purpose of provoking discussion. After the pupils have discussed each point the expanded outline may be made out to show the result of the discussion, and, of course, may be made very different in form from the foregoing.

The Teaching of Civil Government

ALBERT H. SANFORD, LA CROSSE (WIS.) STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, EDITOR.

Course in Civics for the Grades

BY A. C. SHONG, SUPERIOR, WISCONSIN.

Introduction.

One purpose of the public school is to produce good citizenship. The term citizenship is often interpreted too narrowly. For as Dr. Dewey says: "The child is to be not only a voter and a subject of law; he is also to be a member of a family. He is to be a worker, engaged in some occupation which will be of use to society and will maintain his own independence and self respect. He is to be a member of some particular neighborhood and community and must contribute to the decencies and graces of civilization wherever he is. Training for citizenship is formal and nominal unless it develops the power of observation, analysis, and inference with respect to what makes up a social situation and the agencies through which it is modified."

Therefore a great advance was made when the old individualistic standpoint was abandoned. Now all instruction along these lines has the definite object of arousing the pupil's consciousness of the meaning of community life and of his relations to it. For unless the result is toward a citizenship that both sees social purposes and political machinery more clearly and also feels the claims of social obligation to be more binding upon conduct, civics teaching will be a failure.

The aim in civic study is to show that society, for the sake of convenience, has organized itself into political units—town, village, county, city, State, nation. That each of these is made up of a group of people working in coöperation—doing those things for each group which all need to have done.

To get, for example:

- (1) Protection against personal danger, disease, fire, loss of property, etc.
- (2) Conveniences, such as means of transportation, water, light, post-offices, etc.
- (3) Care of the unfortunate, the sick, poor, insane, etc.
- (4) Means to satisfy the desire for knowledge, culture, etc., such as schools, libraries, parks, playgrounds, etc.

Emphasis should always be placed on the importance of coöperation. The child must be helped to realize himself as a *helpful member* of each group that does work for him. All instruction should be as concrete and vivid as possible with the object of showing him:

- (1) What are the most important things each political group does for its members.
 - (2) Something of the machinery by which needed work is done. (Simply as a means to an end, however. Officers, laws, elections, taxation constitute the machine through which each group does its work.)
 - (3) That the relations between office holders and the public should always be reciprocal—honest service for honest support.
- It will be seen that the greatest aim of civics teaching is an ethical one. Often this object can best be obtained by indirect means. The following mere enumeration of some of the opportunities for such incidental civic or ethical instruction, gathered from various sources, may suggest possibilities to the teacher:
1. The life of the school as a coöperative community, in the school building and in its neighborhood.
 2. Those phases of nature study which illustrate coöperation and mutual aid among plants or animals.
 3. Geographic study of the products of the earth and human labor in such a way that all workers may be seen to be working for each, and each for all.
 4. National songs and literature, art, etc., of our own and other lands so used as to increase self-respect and respect for others among different nationalities.
 5. Every subject, properly taught, should make for truth-telling in word and act.
 6. Current events so discussed that community problems, honest and brave conduct of citizens and officials, and high social ideals of many kinds may be seen and felt in concrete human relations.

7. In the language of athletics, all possible opportunities should be taken to help the child to realize that he is a member of various social "teams" and that he needs to learn to "play a good team game."

8. The personality of the teacher is at the root of all ethical and civic education in the school. The teacher's voice, speech, bearing, and dress; the teacher's poise, self-control, courtesy, kindness; the teacher's sincerity, ideals, and attitude toward life, are inevitably reflected in the character of her pupils.

In looking over the field for material to carry out these purposes one is confronted not by a lack of material, but by an over-abundance of it. Much care should be used, however, by teachers to select subjects best suited to the age of the children. The number of different and interesting things done by us through our various governments is large enough to make overlapping unnecessary. In the treatment of each topic selected the teacher should see to it that the pupils see and feel at least the following four phases of it:

1. The *something* being done.
2. The *people* who do it.
3. The *people for whom* it is done.
4. How the *something*; (a) is done now; (b) used to be done; (c) ought to be done.

It will be observed that something has been outlined for each of the grades, for the study has been found profitable in the lower as well as the higher classes. No attempt has been made to exhaust the field. The suggestions which follow are meant to be suggestions only. It should also be explained that material has been taken from various sources and that no especial claim is made to originality.

The First and Second Grades.

The aim here is to help the child to observe and to understand as many kinds of social activity that affect his own life as possible. The teacher may well begin with the family, its activities and organization, afterwards reaching out to as many phases of our industrial and political life as children of this age see most of and need to understand.

The Home and Family.

The home and the homestead. What it consists of. The family, its members. Object of the family. Government of the family. Relation of the parent to the child. Parental authority, parental duty. Obedience. Responsibility of the family. Resources of the family. Compare the condition of the farmer's family with that of the city dwellers. Which has the most advantages, life in the country, or life in the city? Have the child observe whether his own family is chiefly dependent on itself for its needs, or depends largely upon its neighbors. If others administer to the wants of the child's family, have him find out what his family does for others. Base the whole upon the children's own experience and observation.

The Blacksmith.—Who has seen one? What was he doing? For whom was he working? Where was he working? What did he have to work with? His tools, anvil, bellows, benches, mallets, etc. Describe his dress, apron, shop, etc. Did the blacksmith ever do anything for us? What? Why? Do we do anything for the blacksmith? What? Draw pictures of the blacksmith, his tools, his shop. Read about, sing about, tell stories of him and his work. Visit his shop and talk with him.

In a similar way take up other occupations such as carpenter, dressmaker, mason, plumber, milkman, drayman, engineer, farmer, etc., in the light of their social service. Continue this line of work until the child begins to understand the underlying basis of our industrial life: industrial interdependence, coöperation, and reciprocal service. If the work just outlined has been thoroughly done the transition to the next step will be easy.

The lessons which follow are designed to create an interest in specific knowledge regarding our local government and to arouse a certain kind of hero worship for the public servants who are doing these things for us. It has been found by experience that a majority of children are keenly interested in street scenes and actual

life about them and that this knowledge is a valuable bond between the school room and the home.

The Policeman.—Most children dislike and fear the policeman. This grows out of misconception of his function. It should be the object of the teacher to correct this impression. To this end emphasize his positive functions in contrast with the negative side of his work. For example, helping lost children to find their homes; helping women and children across crowded streets; helping people who are injured at fires or by accidents; care of old people and cripples in getting on street cars; directing strangers to right localities; recovering stolen property, etc. Anecdotes of his bravery, continual watchfulness by day and night, in time of storm and cold, etc. The children should see that the vigilance of the man in the blue suit and brass buttons makes the community a safe place for men, women, and little children. The patrol box and its uses, patrol wagon, etc. How can boys and girls make themselves useful to the policeman? Has the policeman ever done anything for us? Some children are very thoughtless and sometimes become nuisances to the police force. See what can be done to overcome such an attitude among them. Talk with the policeman, tell stories of his work, draw pictures, play games, etc.

The Street Sweeper.—Talk with him. What he does. How he does it. What does he have to work with? Describe his cart, dress, tools, etc. Who cleans the street where he lives? Who pays him for his work? Danger from dusty and dirty streets. What can we do to make his work easier? Connection between his work and the work done in our home, school, etc. Draw pictures and tell stories of the street sweeper.

The Street Sprinkler.—Talk with him. Describe his wagon, team, etc. Where he gets the water to spray the streets. Who pays for it? Why we have this work done for us. Under whose direction he works. Why not sprinkle the streets ourselves?

Contagious disease cards.—Who has seen them? Where they are placed. How we act when we see one on a house. The kindness of the people in thus giving others warning of danger. Compare the person who does this service with the persons who warns the engineer of a broken rail; a watchman who gives warning of a fire; a sentinel who gives warning of the approach of the enemy, etc. Seek to develop in the children a feeling of responsibility to warn others when they know of danger approaching.

The Mail Carrier.—[A somewhat detailed study of the postoffice is suggested for a higher grade.] When he comes, how often, how regularly, what he brings, where he gets the things he brings, the mail boxes. Different kinds. Where they are placed. How our mail is collected from the boxes. Take the children to the Postoffice and explain everything that they can understand. Examine the mail wagon which carries the mail bags to and from the train. Responsibility of the men who do these things for us. What kind of persons should be appointed to do this work? Usefulness of the service. Have the children draw pictures of the mail man, tell stories of his work, play games illustrating it.

The School Janitor.—What he does, why he does it, what the importance of his work is to us. Who employs him and how he is paid for his work. What the children can do to help him. Show the proper relation between the care of rooms, school building, and grounds by teacher and pupils and the work of the janitor. Some children have the idea that they may abuse the building since it is publicly owned and that they may litter it up as they please, for there is a servant to clean up the building. There is no better place for the teaching of correct civic ideals and conduct than in those places where the child comes into direct contact with public servants and property that is socially owned. The aim here should be to teach positive ideals of coöperation between children, teacher, and janitor, followed by habitual action in harmony with this aim.

Third Grade.

Fire Department.—It is thought that by the time the pupils reach the third grade they are old enough to understand social organization. Even the youngest children are keenly interested in the fire department. Here children may see social organization at its best, for no department of the public service is more thoroughly organized or more efficient. The child who gets the idea that the make-up of the fire department is wholly determined by the work it has to do, and that the right basis for choosing men to act as firemen is their ability to fight fires, has, in a concrete form, an ideal that will help make him an enemy of the spoils system in any form. In this the child may be led to understand the work of fire fighting now, as it used to be done, and how, perhaps, it might be done. It should show him how social organization has been a process of evolution,

improving step by step. Above all he should see in it a coöperative enterprise; that in reality we are fighting our fires just as truly as in the olden days of the leathern bucket. There is no better material of any kind for the purpose of developing in children high ideals of courage and faithful performance of duty.

The Fire Station.—The class should thoroughly inspect a fire station accompanied by their teacher. Talk with the men. Ask the captain to explain everything about the building, equipment, horses, etc. The quarters of the men, sitting room, library, recreation hall, dormitory, beds, etc. Slide down the poles. Notice the boots and clothes of the men. Visit the horse stalls. Find out the names of horses, how they are fed, cared for, trained. What kind of horses make good fire teams? Have the uses of the apparatus explained fully: the ladders (different kinds), belt with snaphook and hatchet, axes, ropes, life nets, tarpaulins, hose hoists, battering-rams, etc. The engine, hose wagon, chemical engine, trucks, etc. Find out how steam is kept in the engine boiler so as to be ready when the alarm is sounded. How the men care for their tools, appliances, etc. How hose is dried after a fire. Have the fire alarm telegraph system explained. The method of receiving an alarm of fire. How to send an alarm. Have each child find the alarm box nearest to his house, church, father's store, the school, etc. How alarms may be sent by other means. Tell stories of the bravery of firemen. Their methods of fighting fires, tearing down buildings, saving property from water with rubber blankets, saving lives by means of scaling ladders, sliding down ropes, etc. Draw pictures of firemen, engines, etc. Sing songs of firemen, play games of firemen, etc.

Organization.—Find the names of the different officers at the station. The chief, assistant chiefs, captains, lieutenants. What are their relations to each other and what is the duty of each officer? How the men are formed into companies. How the men are classified, hook-and-ladder-men, hose men, stokers, etc. Who pays the men, what pay different classes of men and various officers receive. Find out how many stations there are in the city, which is headquarters, how much money is spent on buildings, equipment, salaries, and where this money comes from. Why there is need of organization among the men. What kind of men make the best firemen. How the firemen get their positions. Usefulness to the community of such an efficient body of men. The police and fire commission, what it does, how composed, its examinations. How the men are promoted. How long the men work, their days "off," etc. Fire drills in schools. Why they are necessary. What can be done to make them more effective. How the police act in coöperation with the firemen, why is there a need of coöperation. How can children help the firemen? Report misused fire escapes and other violations of the fire ordinances. What is to be thought of boys and girls who set brush fires that menace life and property.

Other means of fighting fires known to children, such as hand grenades, fire tugs, perforated pipes, chemical cans, fire doors, etc. Fire escapes, what they are for, how used, on what kind of buildings required, different kinds, etc. Cause of fires, faulty construction due to lack of proper precaution in building, desire for cheapness, etc. How a builder is showing good citizenship when he builds well, and bad citizenship when he builds a fire trap, a menace to us all. Lessons from great fires, Chicago fire 1871, Iroquois Theatre, forest fires.

Fire Insurance (Briefly).—Prevents great loss to individuals. Note that insurance does not prevent loss, but really spreads it over the community. What is meant by the policy, premiums, rate, etc. Anything that will show this is an example of coöperation.

History of Fire Fighting.—Days of leather bucket, public well, lines of men passing buckets of water. Stories of the way fire is fought now in small villages and farm houses. Franklin's account of fire fighting in Colonial Philadelphia, the bucket and swab in each house or shop, confusion and disorder at fire, lack of organization, etc. Early precaution against fire, early laws affecting stove pipes, chimneys, ashes, combustibles, etc. Early volunteer companies, engines drawn by men, who hurried from their work, or by horses kept at a distance. Time it took to get to a fire, compared with the present. Show that men worked at their usual occupations and fought fires incidentally. The need of all helping in early days. Wooden buildings, water hard to get, poor apparatus, etc. Use of horses, steam engines, invention of elaborate apparatus, electric signals, growth of city and growing demands on firemen, make better organization necessary. Evolution from unofficial coöperation to social organization. Gradual separation of a group of men from their usual work to specialize in fire fighting.

(To be continued.)

One Way to Teach Civics

BY MARY LOUISE CHILDS, EVANSTON (ILL.) HIGH SCHOOL.

Mutual helpfulness is the best condition human beings can attain. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE is quietly spreading this doctrine of daily living by furnishing one large group of teachers with a clearing-house for exchange of ideas along the lines of their work. Those of us who have profited by this helpful interchange of ideas and methods desire to contribute our mite to the capital stock, to be passed onward for the benefit of all.

Given eighty boys and girls, average age sixteen, largely from the second-year class in a suburban high school within twelve miles of the second largest city in the United States: How shall their teacher interest them most surely in the study of government? The time allowed is about one hundred recitations, and civics alternates with freehand or mechanical drawing throughout one year.

The small city of less than 30,000 people whence these pupils come is devoid of every kind of manufacturing; has a large Methodist university in its midst and an academy; is preëminently a moral, law-abiding community; a city of homes, and rejoices in the name of the "Classic Town," bestowed upon it by Frances E. Willard. These are the conditions of the problem. Its partial solution follows, and perhaps may be suggestive to other workers in similar localities.

The civics class has an unusual number of boys, and is equally divided between boys and girls—forty each. They are a wide-awake, inquiring set of young people, and by their questions keep their teacher on the *qui vive* to supply them with needful material.

Opening the Course.

The first lesson is always a discussion of the definition of civics from the Standard Dictionary, chosen because of its clear, direct statement. The close relation between this new subject and the United States history the pupils studied in the eighth grade, as well as the Latin of the preceding year, is duly emphasized. Indeed the entire work is based on their United States history, and illustrations are continually drawn from it. The exceeding usefulness of their first year English in its application in keeping the note book is enlarged on. An earnest effort is made to connect their civics with as many previous studies as possible, and thus lead them to see the thread of relationship running through all their high school course, however dissimilar the studies in name—a valuable idea for these immature second years to grasp.

It is the custom to place each advance lesson on the blackboard and make its outline, required topics and reading references as explicit as possible. Sixteen-year-olds like to know exactly what will be ex-

pected of them, and if a teacher is careful in giving out the advance lesson, she may justly require more definite statements and methodical work from her pupils. Usually the girls outnumber the boys in the class, therefore the reasons they should study civics, and what they may expect to gain from such knowledge are carefully taught.

Note-Books.

A special feature of our work is the note book, "the supplement to the text-book," and while it requires a good deal of time and effort to prepare, ample credit is given, and experience has proved that for us it is well worth while. We use an 8 x 10 cover, loose leaf form with a margin and light-weight manila sheets, in addition to the ordinary paper, for the pasting of the newspaper clippings. Red ink is used in very simple fashion for the marginal work, such as numbering of topics and titles. The pupils are told very fully and clearly why the note book is kept in this form, and just what its advantages are. When they understand how it will assist them in finding a topic, how much better their book will look and the time saved in correcting their work by this method, they rarely fail to coöperate very cheerfully in carrying out their teacher's wishes when taken into her confidence, and told just the reason for these requirements. Such a note book might be wasted time for seniors; but these second-years can profit by habits of good form and logical, orderly arrangement, and to cultivate such habits is one of the definite objects in the keeping of this civics note book. The teacher dictates some of the topics when material and orderly arrangement would be beyond the powers of these adolescents to collect and classify. For instance, they are given a topic on "How the county clerk computes the taxes"; but they are required to prepare as a review an outline of "How a revenue bill becomes a law," after careful class discussion of the process of law making.

Newspaper Work.

There is rarely a single pupil who does not have access to a daily paper, either morning or evening edition, so we make the illustrative material gleaned from the daily press a strong part of the work. The daily papers form our "civics laboratory." In 1908, of course, our newspaper work was guided by the fact of a presidential campaign. A national nominating convention held in the neighboring city, with a regular and adjourned session of the state legislature, and an election of a United States senator thrown in, furnished items of unusual interest. 1909 being an "off year" in matters political, some extra thought and planning has been necessary to arrange suitable newspaper work. The pupils are collecting items on current

events and grouping them according to some general plan which each student is encouraged to decide on for himself. For instance, some of them have named one of their pages "Celebrations," and put there such clippings as those about the Hudson-Fulton celebration, the Seattle exposition, and Taft day in Chicago. One page is devoted to the duties of President Taft, several to Congress, one to forestry and the reclamation service, the Illinois charity service, work of Governor Deneen, the various branches of the county government, as jury commissioners, probate and juvenile courts, and the various steps in a civil and a criminal action. These titles simply indicate the scope of the work. The pupils are taught how to save time in reading a newspaper, and how to make use of its table of contents. Our own city government is to be fully illustrated by items from the three local papers, and emphasis is always put on the service rendered the community through the departments of public works, health and police. We have the advantage of a talk from the mayor explaining the city budget to the civics pupils in very simple, direct fashion. The health commissioner also gives them a talk on tuberculosis and the world-wide campaign against the white plague.

So much is being said about Cannonism and the crying need of reform in the house rules, also concerning our currency, that unusual emphasis was placed in 1909 on the powers of the speaker, the Reed rules, and the elementary principles involved in United States coinage and paper money. There is careful teaching of what lies back of an honest paper currency and an honest dollar, whether coin or paper. Political issues *per se* are avoided, but what seems simple, elemental public honesty is taught these junior citizens "without fear or favor." There is constant effort to lead every pupil to see both sides of a question, and among the required newspaper items is one in favor of Speaker Cannon and his work, and one against him. Just here is proved the advantage of such a divergent list of dailies as the class has from which to select items.

Bulletin Board.

A large bulletin board covered with green felt, and framed so nicely that it is a real ornament to the recitation room, hangs on the front of the teacher's desk, and the most important newspaper items are thumb-tacked to it each morning. One section has charge of it each week. Of course the teacher reserves the right to add her contribution at any time if she sees some important subject is escaping the eyes of the bulletin monitors. You will always find a cluster of heads around this bulletin board at the beginning of each recitation period, finding out the "bill of fare" for the day.

In 1908 an experiment was tried of a civics club made up of all the pupils enrolled in the civics classes. Meetings were held monthly for an hour on Friday afternoons during the year, and the programs were generally given by the club. Illinois in 1908 was especially interested in the jubilee anniversary of the Lincoln-Douglas debates, so a program on these opened the work. An election on the regular Tuesday in November was held strictly in accordance with law. Specimen ballots were furnished by the county clerk, regulation booths and ballot box through the courtesy of the city clerk. Registration was required and proper poll books made out. The making out of the tally sheets nearly floored the boy officers, because of the labor involved in counting split ballots and the votes "plumped" for state representatives, due to Illinois' peculiar system of minority representation.

A mock session of the United States Senate was held, and several debates. An ex-member of the State Legislature told the club just how laws were made at Springfield. A joint meeting of the club and the academy was held, and a lecture given on "The Forest and Life," by Enos A. Mills, lecturer for the United States Bureau of Forestry. Attendance was not required at these club meetings, and of course in the spring, when base ball and tennis reigned supreme, the meetings languished, though the girls "held the fort" right valiantly to the very last.

Debates.

The civics club votes each year for the thirty-two members of their eight debating teams, and for a chairman, secretary and two sergeants-at-arms to have complete control of each one of the four debates to be held in the year. The first in 1909 came off early in November, when the question, "Ought the coming Congress to establish postal savings banks?" was won by the negative side on a referendum vote of the club acting as judges. The next debate will be, "Ought the powers of the speaker of the United States house to be curtailed?" The third question will be one of vital interest in Illinois on the extension of our civil service law, and the fourth one on a municipal question to be selected by the club from a list submitted to them. As there are no literary societies or debating clubs in the school, and no training in rhetoricals, these debating teams seem to give a little experience along very useful lines. In collecting material for the first debate, one boy wrote to the American Bankers' Association for negative arguments, and one of the girls interviewed a prominent Chicago banker in her zeal for suitable material, while the leader on the affirmative side gathered his arguments from material furnished through the Postal Savings Bank League, to whom he wrote of his own accord for information. The pupil secretary of the debate writes the account published in the high school items of the local papers, as there is no school paper.

Charitable Work.

The charitable work of the club deserves mention. After the excursion late last fall to the county charitable institutions, the question was asked, "Can't we do something to help get playthings for the thirty-five little children we saw in one of the wards at the poor-house?" The response to this query was a generous box of toys, picture books, dolls and candy collected by the members of the club and their friends, and sent at Christmas with the holiday greetings and good wishes of the boys and girls. This year a similar box will go to brighten the lives of fifty little ones in the county infirmary. In addition a box of shoes and clothing is sent to the Juvenile Detention Home, where delinquent and dependent children are housed, awaiting the decision of the judge of the Juvenile Court. These two institutions are chosen because especially appropriate as embodying part of the "home mission field of the citizen," and can unite the pupils in social service regardless of creed or nationality. Surely we can do no better thing for these young people than lead them to realize their citizenship spells duty as well as privilege.

The most popular feature of the work has proved to be the excursions to various institutions in and around Chicago that best illustrate government in action. There is a wealth of civic material close at hand for this purpose, and seven of these excursions were given last year on Saturdays. Among them were trips to the federal and county buildings, the county charitable institutions, Hull House, to show what a famous social settlement was doing to make aliens into valuable citizens, and down the great drainage canal to the controlling works at Lockport. Through the courtesy of the United States district judge a suitable case was heard in that court, and more learned in one hour of court procedure than the text book could teach in many lessons. A trip to Fort Sheridan this fall has inaugurated the series for the present class. Ninety-three have been taken on one of these excursions, and as attendance is entirely voluntary the numbers availing themselves of the opportunity seem to prove their appreciation. The pupils wear the school colors and are led to feel they bear the good name of the school in their hands, and right loyally do they respond to the trust. Ample compensation for the time and effort involved in planning these trips is found in the opportunity to meet the pupils on the basis of friendship and a common interest. More can be learned of them and their needs in these hours spent together than could be gleaned from a semester behind the desk. We are greatly indebted to many officials who have given us unusual advantages and shown the utmost courtesy and kindness in helping to make these excursions a success.

Text-Books and Aids.

Our civics text-books are James and Sanford—"Our Government"—for the first

semester, and Greene's "Government of Illinois" for the second half of the work. These are supplemented by many mimeograph lists of topics on special points, as United States coinage, United States paper money, the Australian ballot, civil service reform, the probate court, our school system, the jury commissioners. Each year special topics are studied and reports given before the class, every student presenting three or four such reports. Last year forestry and the child labor question were among the number. This year public health and what a city should do for its citizens will be studied. One of the excursions is to be to the wonderful recreation centers in the South Parks of Chicago, and then the pupils will study what has been done already by the cities of Europe and the United States along the line of municipal social service. The students also report titles of any magazine articles helpful in their work. For instance, "The Heroes of the Gunnison Tunnel," in "Everybody's" for October, 1909, was read by all the pupils with much interest.

A word of explanation is necessary for the order followed—national government, then the state, and last the local. Local governments in Illinois are unusually complicated with our mixed county-township system here in the north of the state. One of the most complex school systems in the United States prevails in our own township of Ridgeville, with three distinct elected school boards controlling a tiny area of six square miles. Long experience has seemed to prove that for us the national government furnishes the simplest mode of approach to the entire field, and since civics is taught as an independent subject to immature second-years, it is of vital importance to arouse their interest first and foremost. Otherwise they will detest civics as the dreariest study in the curriculum, when it ought to be one of the most fascinating and keenly alive of the whole high school course.

PANAMA IN 1855.

The cover pictures this month show scenes upon the Isthmus of Panama over fifty years ago. The cuts are taken from a little book by Robert Tomes, published in New York in 1855, entitled "Panama in 1855. An Account of the Panama Rail-road, of the Cities of Panama and Aspinwall, with Sketches of Life and Character on the Isthmus." Tomes was a New York author who went out with a party of gentlemen from New York as the guests of the Panama Railroad Company, by no means an uncommon form of junketing at that early date. The company had occupied nearly five years in building its line of forty-five miles, an average of nine miles to the year, and had opened its entire line in January, 1855. Tomes gives many amusing incidents of his short stay on the Isthmus, together with descriptions of the traffic on the Isthmus before the days of the railroad.

Recording History for History Teachers

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN, PH.D.

Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City.

BUDGET EXHIBIT.

New York City's Budget Exhibit illustrating applied civics has proved a greater success than was anticipated even by its promoters. 25,000 to 50,000 people a day have visited it, while the newspapers of New York and throughout the country have described it for many millions.

The teachers of civics and history in New York City and Hoboken, New Jersey, are not only visiting the exhibit, but are bringing children in large numbers.

It is hoped that a hand-book giving illustrations and photographs and telling parts of the exhibit will be published for later educational uses. There is also serious talk of a permanent municipal museum which will preserve the most important parts of this present exhibit and add to it, from time to time, other features. The only difference between New York City and other cities, even small towns, is one of size. All cities have the same opportunity to present graphically what they are trying to do for themselves, what they left undone and what is planned.

The minutes of to-day's public hearing (I am writing on October 6th) would be of great value to all teachers of civics and history. It was board of education day. Not only did educational authorities fail to show familiarity even with the location of the various requests in their bulky budget estimate, but they admitted: (1) an overstatement of 100% in the increase in register in the elementary schools; (2) the inclusion twice of two other items running into hundreds of thousands; (3) an underestimate in an "accrual fund" of about \$150,000; (4) a very great under-estimate in the number of children who drop out of school during the year.

This New York situation is one which could be profitably studied not only by public school teachers in other cities, but by teachers in colleges and private schools. For many years there has been a tendency throughout the country to take it for granted in public discussions of education, that any amount of money that can be obtained from taxes or from philanthropists was justifiably obtained, regardless of evidence that it was being efficiently expended. In fact within ten days in New York City there has been protest against an alleged "betrayal of city needs," the betrayal in question being merely a demand on the part of fiscal authorities that waste be cut out of public administration. Fortunately, at a meeting of social workers Mr. Lawrence Veiller, of the Charity Organization Society, declared that it was premature to talk about betrayal of city needs until after it was ascertained whether and in what particular places reductions were to be made,

and in what instances any reductions would result in injury rather than in elimination of waste.

New York City's budget estimates and tentative budget will be printed by the time the November HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE is out, and other literature will be available at that time to teachers who will apply to Comptroller William A. Prendergast, 280 Broadway, or to the Bureau of Municipal Research, 261 Broadway, New York City.

WANT COURSES IN MANAGING PUBLIC FUNDS.

Asserting that the present methods of administering public funds and recording them in a straightforward manner to the people is inadequate, the committee of education of the New Jersey State Civic Federation has sent letters to the authorities at Princeton University, Rutgers College and Stevens Institute, urging the establishment of a course in those institutions in which shall be taught the management and control of municipal affairs. The text of the letters sent to the colleges follows:

"To the President and Trustees:

"The records of the various city governments, as disclosed in public print in the last three years, have been such as to call serious attention to the inadequacy of present methods of administering public funds and recording the same in a straightforward account to the people.

"Realizing that the only remedy lies in an educated and expert management and control of municipal affairs, the New Jersey State Civic Federation through its proper committee, calls upon your honorable body to establish such a course in your curriculum as shall prepare young men for an intellectual grasp of the powers and duties of the administrative side of a municipality, and fitting them to assume, as experts, the matters of accounting in city affairs."

SCHOOL EFFICIENCY.

Speaking of school efficiency and of statements of school expense that fit evidence of school work, there is a growing effort to apply efficiency tests not only to curriculum and methods of instruction, but to instructors themselves. The September number of the "Educational Review" treats of a "neglected cause of retardation," and says that a very important cause not usually conceded is the inefficiency of teachers themselves. Associate Superintendent Walsh, of New York City's schools, in a recent report, also said that not all of non-promotion is due to physical defects, crowding of rooms, etc., but that much of it is among children of average ability taught by inefficient teachers.

The Bureau of Municipal Research will be glad to send to teachers of civics and history a report based upon the answers of city superintendents of schools. The most significant results are shown in the answers following: Of 117 superintendents, 77 say that their principals must see each child before he is marked for non-promotion; of 105 superintendents, 62 report that teachers must explain in writing why the child is held back; of 121 superintendents, 82 require an explanation as to each individual child before it may be held back; of 119 superintendents, 88 write that they analyze causes of non-promotion; of 98 superintendents, 53 express their purpose to discuss non-promotion in their next annual reports; of 111 cities, 24 have special "catch up" classes of children who are falling behind.

Memphis, Tenn., devotes eight weeks of vacation schools, plus Friday afternoon of each week, plus the half hour of each daily session to stumbling and backward children.

Walden, Mass., makes sure that not only the principals and city superintendent are informed when each child is in danger of non-promotion, but that the parent shall be informed two or three months in advance or at the earliest moment when that danger becomes obvious to the teacher.

Port Jervis, New York, maintains "an assistant teacher in each building where there are ten rooms, whose work is to take those who are falling behind for any cause and help them up to grade. This work is done individually and not in classes."

By promoting children for "ability to do advanced work," Detroit has increased the promotions from 75% to 91.5% since 1896.

NOTES.

A "Monthly List of State Publications" has been undertaken by the Division of Documents of the Library of Congress. The list should prove of great value to students of State documents.

What was perhaps the first State Conference of the Mayors of Cities was held recently at Trenton, N. J. Governor Fort presided over the meeting. The principal topics discussed were those dealing with State legislation concerning cities.

The H. H. Wilson Co., of Minneapolis, have published "A Handbook of United States Documents," prepared by Miss Elfred Everhart, of Atlanta, Georgia. The work consists of (1) Congressional Documents, (2) Serial and State Publications of the Nine Executive Departments, (3) Publications of Commissions and Other Branches of the Government not Included in the Nine Departments.

New Books on Civil Government

BEARD'S "AMERICAN GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS."

A noteworthy work on American institutions is Professor Beard's new book entitled "American Government and Politics." The work is a comprehensive survey of all the political institutions of the United States in nation, State and local divisions. The treatment is essentially modern and practical. American institutions are described in their present condition, and there is comparatively little space devoted to constitutional history. On the other hand Dr. Beard does not ignore the lines of development and he does not hesitate to point out the dangers in development as they can be seen at the present time. In his treatment of the various functions and organization of government he gives the arguments for and against changes which are being advocated by reformers and reform associations throughout the country. The treatment is eminently concrete. Generalizations, where made, are almost always followed by detailed illustrations of actual political practices. In this respect on account of its wealth of illustration and for the abundant references to practical political methods, the book is most valuable. While perhaps not displaying the deep insight into American institutions shown by Bryce's great work, the writer ventures to say that the book of Beard will take its place on the desk or in the library second only to the British Ambassador's book.

The work is divided into three parts, Historical Foundations, The Federal Government, State Government, under the latter being included all the subsidiary forms of local government depending upon State authority for their existence.

Part I contains 144 pages or about one-fifth of the entire volume. This historical narrative is necessarily condensed, and it does not contribute very much to our knowledge of institutions.

Parts II and III, however, present in extended form the details of national and State activities. The enumeration of chapter headings would be of little value. It is interesting, however, to notice that in addition to such topics as the nomination and election of president, the powers of Congress and the federal judiciary, there are chapters on foreign affairs, national defense, taxation and finance, regulation of commerce, national resources, and the government of territories. Under the analysis of State government there are the to-be-expected chapters upon executive, legislative and judicial departments and others upon municipal functions, State and local politics, taxation and finance, and social and economic legislation.

No brief review can give an idea of the detail into which Dr. Beard enters in the treatment of each one of the activities of State and national government. For in-

stance, under the nomination and election of president we have as sub-heads preliminaries to the national conventions, the national convention at work, the national committee, the national campaign, casting and counting the electoral votes, and the inauguration.

Under the topic Congress at Work, we have a most interesting description of the activities of the body. The sub-heads are as follows: party organization and leadership in Congress, the mass of business before Congress, rules of the House of Representatives, committees of Congress, the speaker of the House of Representatives, committee on rules, transaction of legislative business in the House, rights of minority in the House, final stages of a measure, securing information for legislative action.

Under the chapter on the State judicial systems, is given not only the structure of the courts, but also a brief account of the sources of law, the civil law, civil procedure, criminal law, and criminal procedure.

The style is clear and lucid. The author has been very generous in giving foot-note references to the best literature upon his subject, and he has appended a short bibliographic note, together with an excellent index. The work should be not only a serviceable manual for college courses in the subject, but it should reach a far wider field among those citizens who wish a modern account of the practical workings of the American Government.

["American Government and Politics." By Charles A. Beard. Pp. 732. The Macmillan Co., New York. Price, \$2.10 net.]

DUNN'S—"THE COMMUNITY AND THE CITIZEN."

REVIEWED BY H. R. TUCKER, M'KINLEY HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

The book opens with a description of the establishment of a community on a new frontier, showing clearly the simple principles that underlie social relations and activities—things which escape the attention of most pupils because they are "born into them." The sociological character of the work is seen in the next topic considered—a study of the family and its basis of society or the community. The relation of the foreigners to the community and their segregation in large cities is discussed. In connection with the settlement of new territory, land surveys are described. The creation of the health department and other agencies of health, and the agencies of law and order, and the enforcement of their laws are shown to grow out of the needs and interests of the citizens, to be essential to their welfare. The majesty of the law is upheld. Often, lax or no instruction in civil government breeds wrong interpretation of America as

a "free country." The many laws in the varied activities of the people and their enforcement receive strong emphasis. There are other chapter headings which indicate the many valuable departures in material and method of presentation from the usual scope of the Civics text book:—Business Life of the Community, Government and Business Life, Waste and Saving, Transportation and Communication, Education, Civic Beauty, Government and Religion, Charity and Crime, How the Community Governs Itself (Purpose and Nature of government over community life), Defects in Self-government, (Party machinery and Civil Service) Township and County, Government of the City, Government of the State, Government of the Nation, Expenses of the Government. The arrangement of material is thus seen to be such that the varied governmental activities are made attractive by being placed with the proper activity of social relations, instead of being presented as an isolated fact. For instance, in writing of education and the expression of one's opinions, the freedom of speech accorded by our national constitution is compared with the censorship prevailing in Russia. From the partial list of chapter titles given above it will be seen that much new matter is presented, and that the more formal study of governmental institutions (like the last five chapters noted above) is left till the more fitting time—the latter part of the high school course.

As the author says, "The book is a departure from the traditional methods of presenting the subject of Civics to young people." It is primarily intended for the upper grammar grades and the first year of the high school. The author correctly disclaims any intention to propose it as a text for the last year of the high school, when "A scientific analysis of the machinery and powers of government" is most profitably undertaken. Here, then, is a book which will enable any teacher to instruct her pupils within their immediate experience. The pupil is taught to study his own social world, and to do this, Mr. Dunn clearly follows essential pedagogical principles, "Observation, analysis, and inference." The author holds, and no doubt rightly, that it is the interest of the young pupils which must be maintained, rather than, at the early age, a cramming with information. "The point of contact," the child's and the adult's relations to his fellows, is the central aim throughout the text. The pupil studies his own environment and comes to feel that he is a vital part of it.

The author makes frequent use of local history and geography, and thus correlates, easily, two subjects—history and government—which, more and more, are coming to be considered as different phases of the

same subject. For history is but the evolving of the social and political life of the people. There is much sociological material in the book, and it is presented in such simple concept and phraseology that even a child can understand it. For example, in evolving the question of getting a livelihood, the author describes simply the method used by primitive man. The book emphasizes the importance of the ethical phase of man's life and the citizen's obligation to the community in return for the many privileges the community accords to him. It is pleasing to find a school text like this one religious (not denominational) in its tone; that is, it recognizes here and there the religious instincts and activities of man.

The author generally follows a different topical method of presentation from the usual way of considering all governmental activities under the three main divisions of local, state and national governments; i. e., in discussing the protection of life and property, all the ways of securing this in county, city, state, and nation are considered in one chapter, instead of separately under the distinct units of government.

The author's style is simple and entertaining, being more like a story than the usual formal text-book. The statements are clear and concise. The illustrations are very appropriate, being new, varied, numerous, and relevant to the subject matter. There are marginal analyses, a helpful addition to a text-book. The author shows

a broad-minded attitude; for instance, in speaking of the training for citizenship, he does not ascribe to history and civics the only disciplinary power, but he also mentions other branches of the curriculum as training for citizenship.

The excellent questions for investigation at the end of each chapter are prepared so as (1) to develop the pupil's power of observation; (2) to apply the principles to one's own locality, thus stimulating the interest; and (3) to set the pupils to thinking, such questions not requiring formal preparation, but simply calling for class discussion.

There is one omission, which, even in an elementary text, we do not see is justifiable —there is no mention at all of the territorial possessions (continental and insular) of the United States, their government and their relation to the national government.

However, the book is a commendable departure from the average elementary textbook in Civics. It is not the result of theory alone, for it has met the test of a year's experience under the direction of the author in the schools of a large city. It should be in the hands of every teacher of history and civics in the grammar grades and in first year of High School for actual guide. To the teacher of the upper high school courses in history and civics it would offer many valuable suggestions and prove useful in supplementary work. Will not someone, therefore, prepare a text along the same lines

for the civics taught in the last year of the high school?

[Dunn, Arthur William, "The Community and the Citizen," D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1907; pp. 266, viii.; \$75, list price.]

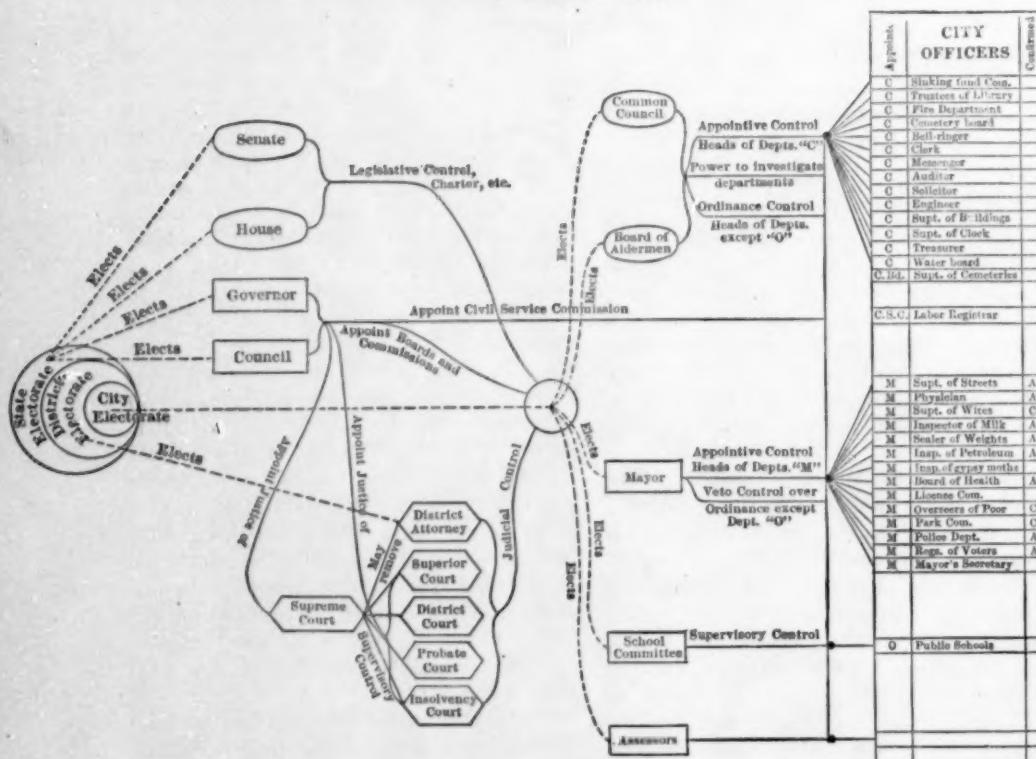
A SYLLABUS ON CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

"An Outline for the Study of American Civil Government in Secondary Schools" has just appeared in two editions, complete for teachers' and partial for pupils' use. The book consists of detailed topics with numerous references and a few excellent diagrams showing the relation of city to State government; Tiedeman's diagram showing the relation of federal government to that of the States; the source of authority in the federal government and nominations and elections in Massachusetts. The odd pages throughout the book are left blank for the addition of notes and memoranda. A selected reading list concludes the work. The book represents several years of careful study and discussion of the subject by a special committee of the New England History Teachers' Association and should prove stimulating and helpful to all teachers of civil government.

The committee was composed of Ray Greene Huling, the late Wilson R. Butler, Lawrence Boyd Evans, John Haynes, William Bennett Munro. The Syllabus will be discussed at length in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE in the near future.

[The Macmillan Co. Price, Pupils' Edition, 50 cents; Teachers' Edition, 60 cents.]

DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE RELATIONS OF LOCAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS.



Reprinted from the New England History Teachers' Association's "Outline for the Study of American Civil Government in Secondary Schools," by permission of the publishers, The Macmillan Co., New York.

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SYLLABUSES

H. V. AMES: American Colonial History. (Revised and enlarged edition, 1908).....\$1.00

D. C. MUNRO and G. SELLERY: Syllabus of Medieval History, 395 to 1500 (1909).....\$1.00

In two parts: Pt. I, by Prof. Munro, Syllabus of Medieval History, 395 to 1300. Pt. II, by Prof. Sellery, Syllabus of Later Medieval History, 1300 to 1500. Parts published separately.

W. E. LINGELBACH: Syllabus of the History of the Nineteenth Century.....60 cents

Combined Source Book of the Renaissance. M. WHITCOMB.....\$1.50

State Documents on Federal Relations. H. V. AMES.....\$1.75

Published by Department of History, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, and by Longmans, Green & Co.

History in the Secondary Schools

Social and Economic Conditions in Medieval England

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

The Problem of the Lesson.

The coming of the Normans marks the beginning of a profound change in the course of English history. New political, social and economic institutions are to be noted on all sides. With the political changes the teacher may be trusted to deal without much urging because for centuries it is this kind of history that has been most in the public eye. What text-book, for instance, fails to insist upon the reorganization of the system of land tenure, upon the new ideals of government, upon the relation between church and state, in Norman and Angevin times, on the judicial and administrative reforms of Henry II, on the political revolution in the time of King John and his son? How few textbooks, on the other hand, succeed in giving an adequate idea of the social and economic life of seven or eight hundred years ago! Yet the latter is at least as important as the former, and the teacher should therefore attempt to make them vital to his class.

In general, we believe that the best way of doing this is by constantly drawing contrasts and comparisons with the life of the present day. If there is in the class a boy or a girl who has ever seen a village in the northern part of Germany with its single village street and its system of open field cultivation, he alone can vivify the character of medieval country life to the class. A description of the American "county fair," of the "market square" of our small American towns, of the peddlers and travelling workmen who still occasionally visit our farm houses, too, will help to make the picture real. Descriptions drawn from novels and tales and poems should be liberally used; and maps and pictures and diagrams and every other sort of visual aid should not be neglected, because these things tend to make the story live.

The Medieval Church.

With these general hints before us, let us proceed to analyze the subject matter of the lessons which we are to present. Medieval society in England, as well as on the continent, divides itself into three more or less distinct classes: the church, the rural communities and the towns. In teaching the subject, we must distinguish first between the secular clergy, those who devoted themselves to the celebration of the mass in the cathedral or the parish churches, and the monastic clergy, who lived in communities for the spiritual uplift which they could thus secure. From the thirteenth century onward there is to be noted still another class—the Friars,

Franciscans, and Dominicans—whose mission in the world, originally, at least, was the amelioration of the condition of the poor, and the preaching of tidings of good hope to those who were spiritually starved.

Of the life and activities of each of these three classes the teacher can easily get a clear idea if he will study a few such books as Jessop's "Coming of the Friars," Gasquet's "English Monastic Life," and Jusserand's "English Wayfaring Life." Two misconceptions the class must be warned against: first, that the life of the secular clergy was universally tainted with the evils of luxury and corruption, and, second, that all monks lived their lives in idleness and riotous waste. Even if it is true that the higher clergy, the bishops and the canons of the cathedral churches, were over-indulgent to themselves, it is nevertheless equally true that the life of the average parish priest was almost as hard as that of the people among whom he lived. Even if it is true that many monasteries were diverted from their original purposes, it is equally true that in many of them there lived earnest and God-fearing men, zealous in worship and devoted to a life of higher and nobler ideals. What the Franciscans and Dominicans did for the people, at least in the earlier years of their existence, the teacher must not fail to impress upon his class.

Social and Economic Conditions in Rural England.

In rural England seven or eight hundred years ago—and the vast majority of people in those days lived by the produce of the land—society was sharply divided into two classes. The upper class, the nobility and the gentry, had no part in the tillage of the soil. Their life was devoted to military and to political service for the king. They inhabited the castles and the manor houses with the descriptions of which our literature is so full. But the pupil should be disabused of the idea that their existence was one of ease and luxury when measured by the standards of to-day. Of comforts and conveniences, such as are found even in our poorest dwelling houses now, they had almost none. A class which is set to work to discover the routine of the daily life of these knights and ladies will find many things to make them more than content with the hum-drum life of a modern American town or farm.

Of the life of the lower classes, the men who actually tilled the soil, no better picture can be found than that in Jessop's essay, "On Village Life Six Hundred Years Ago." When one has finished reading the story, he realizes how far the world

has advanced since those days of long ago. Miserable huts for dwellings, coarse, uncomfortable clothes and shoes, unpalatable, unwholesome food, disease, and an early and comfortless death was the common lot of all this class. Of the various grades among the peasants—freemen, serfs, cottagers, and landless men, we need give no description here. These are to be found in most of the books. Equally of the organization of industry, of the method of cultivation of the home farm or demesne, and of the peasants' holding, it would be useless to attempt to speak. But the teacher must not fail to make these things clear to his class. Beyond the descriptions in the text books, excellent accounts of this phase of English life may be found in Cheyney's "Industrial and Social England," chapter II; in Vinogradoff's "English Manor," and in Traill's "Social England," vols. I and II.

Town Life and Trade.

Our next task is to give our pupils an adequate picture of what a medieval English town was like. Even London in the time of Henry II or Edward I can scarcely have had more than 25,000 inhabitants in all; York and Bristol each 10,000 more. Of all the other towns in England scarcely one could boast of having 5,000 souls. Streets were narrow and unpaved; water supply and sewerage and light there were none. Even the houses were poorly built and without the simplest sanitary conveniences which nowadays we consider indispensable to life. Yet the condition of the town dwellers was, on the whole, better than that of those who lived in the manor houses and in the village huts. They prospered and grew comparatively rich where the others lived from generation to generation with little to mark their progress in the world.

Within the town it was only the select few who enjoyed the privilege of self-government and of trade. The majority of the people were dependents not altogether unlike the landless men in the rural communities beyond the walls of the town. The merchants most frequently were organized into an association, a sort of board of trade, called the Merchant Gild, to which was entrusted the regulation of the commercial activities of the town. Each separate industry in turn was organized into a Craft Gild, which regulated the conditions of manufacture and sale within that trade. To this craft gild belonged the master workmen under whom the journeymen and the apprentices were bound to serve.

Beside the regular daily trade of the town, the class should be led to study the

history of market days, of fairs, and of the very considerable foreign commerce which gradually developed in certain English towns. All this the teacher and the class can find in Traill's "Social England," in Cheyney's "Social and Industrial England" and in Cunningham's "Outlines of English Industrial History" and in many of the text-books as well.

Finally, to complete the story, the class should be introduced to the subject of what Jusserand calls "The Wayfaring Life in England." The teacher who has not read the book should do so at once. Here he will

find descriptions of the roads and bridges, the carriages and the carts, the inns, the castles, and the monasteries in which the traveller found shelter. Here, too, he will find the story of the quacks the charlatans, the minstrels, the jugglers and the tumblers who wandered from place to place offering their services to any one who would pay. He will read of the life of the merchant and the peddler on the road. And finally he will discover what a host of people travelled from place to place—friars, pardoners, and pilgrims—either offering or seeking salvation for the soul.

Bibliography.

For convenience, may we now repeat a list of books which every teacher and many pupils will find it profitable to consult:

1. Traill's "Social and Industrial England," vols. I and II.
2. Cheyney's "Industrial and Social History of England."
3. Jessop's "Coming of the Friars."
4. Vinogradoff's "The English Manor."
5. Gasquet's "English Monastic Life."
6. Jusserand's "English Wayfaring Life."
7. Cheyney's "Readings in English History," Chapter ix, sections 2, 3, and 4.

The French Alliance in the American Revolution

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

The Aim of the Lesson.

The topic, "The French Alliance during the American Revolution," may be taken up from one of two points of view. First, the aim may be to show how important to final success foreign recognition and aid really were. This aim is usually the controlling motive with most teachers. A second and even more important point of view is that we have here in concrete form a large subject which when properly handled should give the pupils an insight into European conditions and international affairs of the end of the eighteenth century. This second point of view is the one that we should emphasize with High School students who are entitled to the broadest interpretation of history. With this idea before him, therefore, the teacher should present as clearly as may be some of the larger movements in the world history of the 18th century. Fiske points out that of the four periods into which the history of the Revolutionary War may be divided, the fourth which "begins with the immediate consequences of the victory of Saratoga and extends to the Treaty of 1783," covers a struggle "no longer confined to the arms of Great Britain and the United States," but extending in some measure over the whole civilized world; though it is only France with its army and more especially its navy that comes into direct relation with the final result in America." (American Revolution II, p. 3.)

Why France Lent Her Aid.

When in September, 1776, the commissioners were first chosen to make formal appeal to France for assistance, there was a well defined feeling that the ancient hatred between England and France would make intervention more likely. Still for a whole year, the King of France refused to receive them officially. Nor is the reason far to seek. Through a curious development, conditions in England and France were completely reversed. On the one hand, the British monarchy which had for centuries stood for a greater and greater degree of freedom among the people, had been brought, through the obstinacy of the

King and the weakness of the ministry, to put forth its strength in behalf of unjust authority exercised to restrain a people who asked for these things which Englishmen had for centuries deemed peculiarly their privileges. On the other hand, France, always subject to despotism, tax-ridden and accustomed to tyranny, had through the spread of liberalism become in a way the foster mother of republicanism—the French King was compelled reluctantly enough, to give his recognition to a people struggling to throw off the yoke of unjust taxation.

The forces which compelled the King of France to take this action were of two kinds. One, the spread of ideas of liberty, equality, and fraternity throughout France has already been referred to; the other was purely personal. That the tremendous wave of popular feeling which spread through Paris and thence throughout France in favor of the recognition of the Americans was due to the personality of Franklin, there can be no doubt. The philosopher became the pet of the French capital, and for a year devoted himself to the task of increasing his personal prestige.

How the Rest of Europe was Affected.

So much for the effect of Franklin's personality. Next let us examine into the larger European movements which were being started by the American Revolution and the proposed French Alliance. There can be no question that the surrender of Burgoyne was the immediate cause which led to the recognition of American Independence. On December 14, 1777, Vergennes, the French minister, received the news of Burgoyne's surrender. On the 16th, the commissioners were told that the King would recognize the independence of the Americans and would make a treaty at once. Six or eight weeks later, early in 1778, the Treaty of Amity and Alliance was signed, and continental Europe was thus drawn into the War of the Revolution.

In January, 1778, Frederick of Prussia expressed his sympathy with the United States. His minister wrote officially to one of the commissioners in Spain, "The King hopes that your efforts may be crowned

with complete success. I will not hesitate to recognize your independence when France, which is more directly interested in the outcome of these events, shall set the example." In January, 1778, he promised 3,000,000 livres and said that much more would be remitted by Spain from Havana.

When finally news of the French treaty and of the attitude of the rest of Europe reached England, the British ministry at once offered conciliatory propositions to America, but it was too late. Nor could the British Government induce the King of France to recede from his position. War between England and France began, and the feelings of the French people flamed out in enthusiasm over the alliance with the newly established republic. On April 29, Voltaire was received into the French Academy, and Franklin was present at the ceremony. The assembly in its enthusiasm demanded some visual sign of the union between the nations, and in the presence of all, Franklin and Voltaire kissed each other in recognition of the fact that the war for American independence was a war for freedom of mind.

On April 12, 1778, a treaty was concluded by France and Spain, which drew Spain into the struggle against England. The position of England was now rapidly growing desperate. As Fiske says, "With one army lost in America, with the recruiting ground in Germany barred against her, with a debt piling up at the rate of a million dollars a week, England was now called on to contend with the whole maritime power of France, to which that of Spain was certain soon to be added." (Am. Rev., II, p. 11).

The Results of the Lesson.

A treatment of the topic of the French Alliance along these lines would make clear three points: 1. Why the colonies sought the Alliance. 2. What conditions in European politics made the French Alliance a thing confidently to be expected. 3. What the effect of the Alliance was, first, on the spirit of the Americans, and secondly, on the English attitude toward the war. From this point the teacher will find it necessary

only to continue the study of the war in the regular chronological sequence, dwelling, however, with greater particularity upon those campaigns or parts of campaigns where French assistance proved vital to the success of the American cause. Finally, in the discussion of the treaty of 1783, the teacher should carefully bring out those features of the treaty which

can be explained only by recalling that clause in the Alliance whereby it was said that no treaty should be entered into without the approval of France.

Bibliography.

The teacher who desires to pursue the subject further will, of course, find valuable information in any of the larger standard

histories of the American nation; in Fiske's "American Revolution," chap 13; in Trevelyan's "American Revolution," Pt. III; chaps. 10 and 11; and in Van Tyne's "American Revolution," chap. 12. Some interesting side lights upon the subject may also be found in Hart's "Contemporaries," vol. II, chap. 32, and in Parton's or in Morse's "Life of Benjamin Franklin."¹

After the Peloponnesian War

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

There is no single period in the history of Greece which is so readily impressed upon the student as that of the struggle with Persia. This is perhaps natural in view of its dramatic character and the human interest which attaches to the various episodes of the struggle. It is a matter of regret that so many of the text-books fail to point out the seriousness of the danger which threatened the whole Hellenic world in 480 B. C. in the attack on the West as well as on the East. The Carthaginian invasion of Sicily receives but scanty notice, notwithstanding its importance. The result is that it is scarcely brought to the attention of the student. While it is true that Gelon was neither a Leonidas nor a Themistocles, his personality is by no means devoid of interest, and the service which he rendered civilization in that remote corner of the Mediterranean was of incalculable value, second only to that of his better known compatriots in Greece proper.

The Age of Cimon.

The interval between 479 B.C. and the age of Pericles has been called by some historians the Age of Cimon. There is a decided advantage in using this designation in our presentation of the material, as it serves the double purpose of emphasizing the biographical character of Greek history and of unifying the events of the period. The few years which elapsed between the battle of Mycale and the elevation of Cimon to the position of admiral of the Greek forces, were also essentially biographical in character and serve as an admirable introduction to the career of the great naval hero. The scene of action is, as it were, cleared for his special benefit, and he is permitted to monopolize the stage until forced into retirement by Ephialtes and his more formidable enemy, Pericles. Not only has Plutarch honored Cimon with a biography, but he has been compared by one of our modern Greek historians to the great Nelson. There is then, abundant justification for devoting some of the time of the class to a detailed consideration of his exploits. He suffers naturally by contrast with Pericles. His career, however, offers an interesting study by reason of those contrasts. Here is a man in some respects more farsighted and more statesmanlike than even that gigantic figure in the Greek political world; Athenian born, but essentially Pan-

Hellenic in his sympathies, as willing to concede to Sparta as to Athens a place in the Greek cosmography. While Cimon was naturally a conservative, Pericles posed as a radical. Cimon's reputation rests upon his naval exploits; that of Pericles on the victories of peace.

Cimon's opportunity is largely the result of the events which immediately precede his appointment to the responsible position of admiral of the fleet. These events may be presented in a single recitation. This interval was marked by Sparta's loss of the commanding position which she had occupied during the war, and by the organization of the Delian League and the foundation of the Athenian Empire. These two ideas may be framed in topical form:

Sparta's loss of leadership and the foundation of the Athenian Empire.

- Conditions in Athens.
- Themistocles and the rebuilding of Athens.
- Spartan opposition.
- Aristides and the formation of the Delian League, 478 B.C.
- Treachery of Pausanias and Sparta's loss of leadership.
- Fall of Themistocles, 471 B.C.

The Problem Stated.

The instructor begins by questioning the class as to which state was responsible for the successful outcome of the struggle through which the Greeks had so recently passed. They will probably be unanimous in attributing the outcome to Athens. This suggests another query, "Who reaped the benefit of these successes?" There may be some differences of opinion on this point, but a class can readily be made to see that Sparta as joint leader on sea and land would experience little difficulty in posing among her sister states as the saviour of Greece from the wrath of Persia. This naturally suggests the contrast presented in the condition of Sparta and that of Athens at the close of the war. A great disaster had befallen Athens in the loss of her city; she was not only destitute of allies, but in a decidedly subordinate position as regards the direction of the land and naval forces. A class is very ready to grasp the fact of Sparta's pre-eminence and leadership at this time. The advantages which made her such might be summed up on the blackboard and placed in contrast with the difficulties which beset her rival:

SPARTA.

A powerful city.
Head of Peloponnesian League.
Commander of joint forces of the Greeks.

ATHENS.

A heap of ruins.
Without friends or allies.
Subordinate to Sparta.

In the words of the historian Bury, "A great national enterprise conducted under her (Sparta's) auspices to a splendid conclusion, must immensely increase the moral strength of her position, and might justly stimulate her ambition; moral power, by dexterous management, can soon be converted into material strength; in short after the battle of Plataea, the Greek world seemed to be at Sparta's feet." (Bury, History of Greece, p. 323.)

If Athens was to secure the position which Sparta occupied, she must overcome the tremendous handicap imposed by circumstances. The problem has now been clearly stated, and the class is ready to follow step by step, the means by which she accomplished this. First, she rebuilt her city. A little questioning discloses the difficulties which beset her path in the hostile attitude of Sparta. Themistocles, however, proved himself more than a match for the envious Spartans, and in consequence of his clever diplomacy a new and larger Athens arose on the ruins of the old. His quondam rival proceeded to lay the foundations of that league which a generation later added so much of glory and prestige to the city of Athens. Finally, Pausanias, in the betrayal of the trust reposed in him, enabled Athens to assume the position which was rightfully her own as commander in chief of the fleet. The game was won. Athens now stood where Sparta had so recently been standing; and now Cimon appeared to drive the Persian from his last foothold on Greek soil. The death of Aristides (468 B.C.), and the ostracism of Themistocles left him master of a situation which he continued to dominate until forced to yield it to the great Pericles.

References.

Bury, pp. 332-345; Oman, chaps. 22, 23; Abbott, "Pericles and the Golden Age of Athens," chaps. 5, 6; Plutarch, "Lives of Cimon, Themistocles and Aristides;" Holm, "History of Greece," vol. II, chaps. 6-11; Cox, "Athenian Empire," chap. 1.

RECENT HISTORY

National Affairs of the United States from the Inauguration of President Taft to the Close of the First Regular Session of the Sixty-first Congress, June, 1910.

(Continued from the October number of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.)

BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

By another act of the Sixty-first Congress Arizona and New Mexico will become members of the Union, which will then include the entire contiguous continental area of the United States. Arizona has an estimated population of 155,000, and New Mexico of 227,000. In admitting these territories to partnership in the Union while yet small in population and comparatively undeveloped, Congress has followed the practice of the past. There are, however, many thoughtful persons who do not approve of giving such small populations power, not only to help govern the nation, but to have more influence in proportion to their number of voters than the larger States. Arizona, for instance, will have three votes in the Electoral College, which will give to each voter in the new State more than three times as much weight in a Presidential election as a voter in an old and populous State like New York or Illinois.

Publicity of the receipts and expenses of the National Committees of all parties and of all committees, associations, or organizations which attempt to influence the result of an election in two or more States is provided for by an act recommended by the President. The law does not cover State committees, though they are always active in the choice of Presidential electors and members of the House of Representatives, or district committees; nor does it require of the candidates any statement of their expenses. The good which it will accomplish is problematical. It is certain that it does not cover the whole field of expenses in connection with elections affecting the entire nation.

Postal Savings Banks are established by another act of the present Congress. It is hoped that this measure will prove a great encouragement to thrift in those parts of the country where good savings banks are not available. The rate of interest is to be two per cent. It would seem that this rate could hardly be attractive to persons within reach of sound savings banks paying three and a half or four per cent. interest. The major part of the deposits is to be placed in local banks near the place where the post office takes in the money. These banks are to pay two and one-fourth per cent. for the use of the funds. As they will in most cases reloan at five or six per cent. they will practically receive a bounty from the United States. It is a question whether the margin of one-fourth of one per cent. which the Government will receive will suffice to pay the expenses connected with the scheme.

No more important question is now be-

fore the nation than that of the conservation of natural resources. This question has many phases, but the immediate issue which presses for settlement is whether the public domain which still remains shall be so used as to benefit the whole people, its real owners, or shall be given away or sold at merely nominal prices, to private persons or corporations. When President Taft took office he found large tracts of public land withdrawn from entry under the land laws by order of President Roosevelt. He took the view that these lands could not legally be kept indefinitely withheld without specific legislative enactment. Such enactment was secured in the Act of June 25, 1910, which provides for the withdrawal of public lands which may be useful for waterpower sites, irrigation and other purposes, but public lands are still open to entry under the mining laws, except those which contain coal, oil, gas and phosphates. Why gold, silver, copper and other mineral lands should still be open to private exploitation the writer does not understand. Under the terms of this law the President has withdrawn 126,000 square miles of public land, equal in area to New York, Pennsylvania and South Carolina. This withdrawal means that these lands are withheld till Congress passes laws as to how they shall be developed. Another important law provides for disposing of the surface of coal lands, for agricultural purposes separately from the underlying minerals.

Vacancies in the Supreme Court were caused by the death of Justices Peckham and Brewer. The first was filled by the appointment of Judge Lurton, of the Circuit Court, and the latter by Governor Hughes, of New York. While the appointment of Governor Hughes was almost unanimously approved, there was criticism of the choice of Judge Lurton, because he was already sixty-five years old. This criticism had much justification, for perhaps the greatest defect of the Federal Courts, from which the Supreme Court itself has suffered, is the presence of judges upon the bench who are physically and mentally incapacitated by age from discharging their high functions satisfactorily. There ought to be a compulsory retiring age for Federal Judges, but as there is not, the appointing power ought always to see to it that men who give promise of many years of good service are the only ones to receive positions on any court. In July, 1910, Chief Justice Fuller died and Justice Moody is soon to retire on account of ill health. President Taft,

before his term is half over, will thus appoint at least four new judges of the Supreme Court, including a Chief Justice.

During the administration of President Taft a number of bills have been drafted in the executive departments which were introduced into Congress as distinctly administrative measures. This is a part of a general tendency which has recently become quite pronounced both in the nation and the States toward the assumption by the Executive of leadership in legislation. Though denounced as an invasion of the legislative sphere, it seems a distinctly healthy movement. The Chief Executive is, if his party have a majority in the legislative branch of the government, the only leader who really represents the whole party in power. Responsibility for party achievement comes home to him with great force. Our system precludes our having a prime minister, but the system of executive leadership might so develop as to give us many of the advantages of having responsible government. The passage of all the laws above referred to, though in several cases in a form considerably different from that recommended by the President, was a part of the Administration program. Seldom has a Chief Executive had so many of his recommendations embodied in law within so short a time. The credit for the good as well as any blame for the bad in recent legislation thus belongs in unusual measure to Mr. Taft. His proposals for reorganizing the government of Alaska, for ship subsidies, for further regulation of the trusts, and for federal incorporation of great businesses have not so far been carried out. There is great need for legislation in regard to Alaska and for more stringent regulation of great enterprises.

The excellent purpose of the President to economize in conducting the government has not yet borne fruit to any appreciable extent. He has, however, publicly announced that he will not again sign a wasteful river and harbor bill constructed by the customary log rolling method. He has also caused to be undertaken a thorough investigation into the working of all the executive departments and there is a plan for formulating a systematic budget. There seems to be some prospect of good results in these efforts.

The Administration is to be highly commended for introducing new regulations for appointment and promotion according to merit in the diplomatic service. The plan carries still further the good work begun under Presidents Cleveland and Roosevelt.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Miss Mabelle Moses, formerly Assistant Director of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, has been appointed instructor in history at Wellesley and at Simmons College.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard, recently head of the history department of the Brockton (Mass.) High School, is now teaching in the High School of Practical Arts, Boston.

Professor William R. Manning, of George Washington University, has accepted the position of Assistant Professor of History in the University of Texas.

Professor Frank G. Bates, of the University of Kansas, has been chosen librarian of the Rhode Island Historical Society. He will also give courses in history in Brown University.

Professor J. S. Reeves, formerly of Dartmouth College, has been appointed Professor of Political Science in the University of Michigan. Chauncey S. Boucher, M. A., has been made Instructor in American History in the same university.

A work with an interesting title announced for early publication by the Macmillan Co., is "The Influence of Wealth in Imperial Rome," by Professor William S. Davis.

The annual address before the Wisconsin Historical Society was delivered on October 29th, by Professor B. F. Shambaugh, of the University of Iowa. The subject was "The History of the West and the Pioneers."

It is a pleasure to announce that the financial and editorial arrangements for the publication of the complete works of William Penn are well advanced toward completion. Mr. Albert Cook Myers, the editor of the works, will shortly sail for England to complete the collection of material. The publication will comprise about fifteen volumes.

Professor Fred Morrow Fling spent the last six months in France gathering material for the second volume of his work upon Mirabeau.

Students of the Revolutionary Period of American History will welcome the announcement that Little, Brown & Co. will publish shortly a new and cheaper edition of Frothingham's "Rise of the Republic of the United States."

The New York City Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has arranged for an interesting meeting to be held on Saturday, December 3rd. The topic for discussion will be "Current Tendencies in the Teaching of History and Civics as illustrated by (a) The 1910 Syllabus in History of the New York Regents; (b) The Syllabus in Civics of the

New England History Teachers' Association." There will be especial emphasis placed in the discussion upon the teaching of Modern History and Teaching of Civics.

More than half of the funds to erect the memorial to the Pilgrim Fathers at Southampton, England, has been subscribed, and it is hoped to unveil the monument next year. Mr. T. Driffield Hawkin, one of the secretaries of the committee having the work in charge, will visit America this fall. The plan of the committee, together with a sketch of the proposed monument were published in the April number of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

At the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the American Antiquarian Society held at Worcester, Mass., in October, addresses upon Historical Writing in America were delivered by Dr. J. F. Jameson, Professor John Bach McMaster, and Prof. Edward Channing.

"Stephen F. Austin and the Independence of Texas" is the title of an interesting article by Eugene C. Barker, in the quarterly of the Texas State Historical Society, Vol. XIII, No. 4.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association will hold its annual meeting at the University of California on November 18 and 19. On Friday evening, November 18, Professor E. D. Adams, of Stanford University, will give the presidential address at the annual dinner. The teachers' session will be in charge of Professor E. I. Miller, of the Chico Normal School. At the various sessions papers will be read by Professor A. B. Show, Stanford University; Professor Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; Professor Levi E. Young, University of Utah; Professor A. M. Kline, University of the Pacific; Professor Jeanne E. Weir, University of Nevada, and Professor O. H. Richardson, University of Washington.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COURSES.

Eight educational institutions in the vicinity of Boston are coöperating this year in a plan for university extension. The institutions are Harvard, Tufts, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston College, Boston University, Museum of Fine Arts, Wellsley, and Simmons. The purpose of the undertaking is to furnish to men and women in the neighborhood of Boston who desire to undertake serious study an opportunity to engage in work of college grade, conducted by regular college instructors. The courses come in the evening, late in the afternoon, or Saturdays. Of especial interest to students of history are the following courses: "English History from 1485 to the Present Time," by Professor

ESSAYS ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

By
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REV. H. M. GWATKIN, M.A.,
 University of Cambridge, England
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Harvard University also gives several regular courses in commercial and industrial organization at late afternoon hours. Full information regarding these courses may be obtained by writing to the Commission on Extension Courses, University Hall, Cambridge.

From unavoidable causes the fall meeting of the N. E. Association, originally set for October 15, could not be held until the latter part of the month. A report of the meeting will appear in the December number.

The New England Association's collection of aids in history teaching is now located in Simmons College, Boston, occupying several rooms on the second floor. The hours when the collection may be inspected are 12.40 to 1.40 and 4 to 6, and on Saturdays from 9 to 5.

**MISSOURI HISTORY TEACHERS'
ASSOCIATION.**

The Association meets this year at St. Joseph, November 10. The program is as follows: 1. Final report of the Committee on the Teaching of History in the High Schools of Missouri. (Any one interested may receive a summary of this report by addressing Professor Eugene Fair, Kirksville, Mo., Secretary of the Association.) Round Table discussion. 2. "Historical Interpretation of the Existing Political Situation in Great Britain," Professor N. M. Trenholme. Open discussion. 3. "Recent Development in Missouri Political Institutions," Professor Isidor Loeb. Open discussion, led by John R. Murdock, Kirksville.

**WISCONSIN STATE TEACHERS'
ASSOCIATION.**

The annual meeting of this Association will be held on Thursday, November 3, at Milwaukee. The program for the history section is as follows: Luncheon, 12.30, at St. James Episcopal Guild House, Carl Pray, of the Milwaukee Normal School, toastmaster.

At 2 p.m. will come the business meeting Paper, "The New Civics," Arthur D. S. Gillette, Superior Normal School; paper, "Recent English Politics," Alfred L. P. Dennis, University of Wisconsin; paper, "Supplementary History Reading for High Schools," Wayland Chase, University of Wisconsin; illustrated talk, "The Use of the Stereopticon in History Classes," Principal Parlin, High School, Wausau.

Professor Dennis has just returned from a study of the situation in England, where he was given unusual opportunities of meeting persons directly connected with the recent parliamentary struggle, and of watching the recent election there.

Miss Gertrude Hull is chairman of the History Teachers' Association.

"THE MAY FIRST HISTORY CLUB."

This association of history teachers of the San Francisco Bay region meets socially about three times a year, and has formed the practice of inviting representative men from without the teachers' profession to address it on the value of history to the man of affairs. The fifth meeting was held on September 17, with Prof. J. N. Bowman presiding. The speaker was Mr. Chester H. Rowell, editor of the Fresno "Republican." Mr. Rowell emphasized the value and need of the "perspective" afforded by historical study. Newspapers employ a "natural perspective," by which the thing that is nearest appears largest. To correct this, and to know real values, the study of history is invaluable. Also, a knowledge of the race history of some of our higher types of immigrants would enable us to assimilate them more advantageously. In solving certain problems, for example, Oriental labor, the "long-sighted" historical view should correct the "short-sighted" economic view.

Book Reviews

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

Of interest to those engaged in the teaching of history is the little volume entitled "Essays on the Teaching of History," containing contributions by F. W. Maitland, H. M. Gwatkin, R. L. Poole, W. E. Heitland, W. Cunningham, J. R. Tanner, W. H. Woodward, C. H. K. Martin and W. J. Ashley.

The introductory essay by Professor Maitland is a characteristic sketch of history teaching in England, with running comment upon the work of the older historians. This is followed by Professor Gwatkin's paper entitled, "The Teaching of Ecclesiastical History," which, except in its title, deals with the principles of class work not only in ecclesiastical courses, but in all history courses. This paper is printed elsewhere in the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*. Mr. Poole contributes an interesting paper upon "The Teaching of Palaeography and Diplomatic," in which he gives many bibliographic references, analysis of the principal parts of a document, methods for determining chronology, and some account of recent university courses in the subjects of Palaeography and Diplomatic. Mr. Heitland treats of the "Teaching of Ancient History." His text is "history must start by looking backward. From consideration of later ages we are enabled to form some notion of the relative importance of events in earlier ages." Other topics contained in the volume are "The Teaching of Economic History," "The Teaching of Constitutional History," "The Teaching of History in Schools," and "The Teaching of History in America."

Under "The Teaching of History in Schools," the following paragraph will be of interest to many American teachers:

"Beginners are best relieved of any attempt to grasp social or political organization. It is an utter mistake to 'start with the concrete,' in the sense in which some writers on historical method have advocated it. There is nothing which appeals to the imagination in the 'policeman,' the 'jurymen,' the 'magistrate,' or the 'mayor' (*qua* mayor); and to try to rise from such 'concrete instances' to conceptions of 'order,' 'government,' 'law,' and 'kingship' is perfectly futile. A teacher may in this manner get in a certain amount of useful information, but it will prove uninteresting, and it is therefore premature."

[*"Essays on the Teaching of History,"* by F. W. Maitland, etc. Pp. xx, 104. G. P. Putnam's Sons. New York. Price, \$1.25.]

NEW YORK SYLLABUS.

The advance sheets of the new History Syllabus for Secondary Schools in New York State have been issued recently by the

New York State Education Department. It includes 167 pages, of which 135 are devoted to history, 19 to civics, and 13 to economics.

The syllabus contains three lines of analysis. The student is expected to be thoroughly familiar with two of these lines of analysis. With the third and more detailed points the student is expected to possess concrete information concerning some few of them, to hold in mind type lessons for others, and upon still others to give a considerable amount of intensive study.

Advance is made in this syllabus by outlining more specifically the work required in note-books, library work, and visual aids. The requirements for note-book and library work will be reprinted in an early number of the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.

**THE NEW INTERNATIONAL YEAR
BOOK FOR 1909.**

REVIEWED BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., EDITOR OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CURRENT HISTORY.

This is a royal octavo volume of 792 pages, covering in the style usual in an encyclopedia the events and statistics of the year 1909. It is edited by Frank Moore Colby, who was assisted by a number of specialists. The book before us is the third of the series so far published. This series occupies a unique position, as it is the only work published in the United States which in any adequate way covers recent occurrences. The "Statesman's Year Book" and the different newspaper almanacs contain considerable of the same material, but do not have the connected accounts of what has occurred which are found in this work. Nor do the files of periodicals fill the same place, for their accounts are written from week to week or month to month and are disconnected and scrappy in comparison with the compact and continuous stories of events as presented in the "Year Book." In Great Britain the "Annual Register" and Hazell's "Annual" do much the same thing as is done in this volume, but they do not do it as well, and, besides, for an American they both lack the right point of view. The first volume of the series, that for 1907, not only covers that year, but gives brief summaries of the events of the four preceding years, so that the three volumes already issued constituted the best available compendium of the world's progress since 1902. On disputed points a commendable endeavor is made to give both sides of the question. There are some 80 illustrations, largely pictures of prominent persons, and 10 excellent maps, including Alaska, Manchuria, South Africa and both the North and South Polar regions.

While the volume covers all departments

of human endeavor, and is not primarily intended as a history, there is nevertheless a great deal of strictly historical material in it. For example, the history of France occupies six pages, and that of Great Britain eleven pages. The history of the United States during the year is extensively treated under that title, and besides there are separate articles on the Tariff, Public Lands, Electoral Reform, Railroads, Frauds on the Custom House, etc. The legislation passed in each State is summarized. An excellent feature is found in the biographies of living persons prominent for any reason during the year. It would be a great addition to the many admirable features of this work if it could contain a key to the pronunciation of proper names. The writer of this review, who has made very extended use of the volume for 1907 and 1908, has no hesitation in saying that the entire series ought to be available for constant use by every teacher or student of history, economics or political science.

[“The New International Year Book for 1909.” Pp. 792. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Price, \$5.]

HANDBOOK OF MISSISSIPPI HISTORY.

An interest in local history is developing in many parts of the country, and nowhere in a greater degree than in the Southern States. This interest has shown itself in the organization or strengthening of state or local historical societies, the appointment of state historians, the marking of historic sites, and in the interpolation of state history into the school curricula of the states. Prof. Franklin L. Riley, in his “Teachers’ Handbook of Mississippi History,” has furnished an excellent aid to the teacher of local history in his state. The Handbook is not a narrative history, and is not designed for pupils’ use; it aims to organize the field of state history for the teacher and thus to stimulate both teacher and pupil to better work in the subject.

The first section of the book is devoted to advice upon the method to be used in teaching state history, and here, in addition to a text-book, the author suggests the use of illustrative source material, the making of scrap-books containing items of state history, the study and the drawing of maps and the extensive use of notebooks.

The second section gives extended lists of thought questions, class exercises, open text-book exercises, lists of important dates, map exercises, and references for supplementary work. Part three comprises two-thirds of the volume, and contains extended topical outlines of the state’s history, from the days of the Indians and early explorers down to the administration of Governor Vardaman (1904-1908). These outlines give not only a skeleton of the political history of the state, but they include as well excellent outlines upon social and economic questions, such as religion, schools, financial institutions, industries and cotton

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[“Teachers’ Handbook of Mississippi History.” By Franklin L. Riley. Pp. 128. B. F. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va.]

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, PH.D., EDITOR.

(Conducted with the coöperation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address: Box 999, Stanford University, Cal.).

—Carnegie Institution of Washington, publication No. 124, Papers of the Department of Historical Research, J. Franklin Jameson, Editor: List of Documents in Spanish Archives Relating to the History of the United States, Which Have Been Printed or of which Transcripts are Preserved in American Libraries, by James Alexander Robertson.

—Johns Hopkins University Studies, Series XXVIII, No. 1 (1910): History of Reconstruction in Louisiana (through 1868), by the late John Rose Ficklen, author of "The Constitutional History of Louisiana." The MSS. was completed for the press by Pierce Butler, of Tulane University. It is reviewed in the Academy for September 10th.

—The National Geographic Magazine for September contains illustrated articles upon "The Fringe of Coast Around Asia Minor" (with a view of the Cilician Gates), "Notes on Normandy" (with a view of Falaise Castle), and "Curious and Characteristic Customs of China;" also upon Liberia.

—In the Revue Politique et Parlementaire for September, Paul Lacombe discusses the events of the decisive period of the French Revolution (August 2, 1792 to June 2d, 1793) from the point of view of a duel between the Commune of Paris and the two Assemblies, the Legislative and the Convention.

—"The Struggle for Prince Edward Island," by Ida Burwash, in the Canadian Magazine for September, is based upon the "Account" of John Stewart, published in London a century ago, and extending from the taking of the Island by the English in 1758 to 1804. In 1780, at the age of twenty-two, Stewart came to the Island. For many years he was Speaker of the Assembly.

—"Ebbo von Reims and Ansgar, an Essay upon Missionary History of the North, and upon the Origin of the Bishopric of Hamburg," by Christian Reuter, is to be found in the Historische Zeitschrift, 9 Band, 2 Heft. Hamburg, the writer points out, was not in early days an important trading center; but became important first from a religious point of view after Archbishop Ebbo visited the Danes in 822, and after Hamburg, chosen as a middle point for all the Saxons, became the seat of a bishopric under Ansgar, who also possessed the missionary spirit.

—The Chautauquan, "The Magazine of System in Reading," inauguates "The

English Year" in vol. 60, No. 1 (September), with the first of a series of articles by the Hon. Percy Alden, M.P., on "Democratic England," around which other articles on England will be grouped during the course of the year.

—The newspaper press of Italy is in point of growth hardly more than forty years of age, and yet in its vigorous national tone and keen acceptance of leadership in the formation of public opinion it rivals that of any upon the Continent. It would be hard to find anywhere better newspaper treatment of the recent clerical disturbances in Spain than the accounts of the special Italian correspondents sent direct from the scenes of conflict to their home papers, especially to those of Rome and Milan. Taking the Italian press as the index of the mental attitude of the people, we may describe them as thoroughly awake to the march of progress.

—The comments of King James I, written upon the margins of the "Supplication for Toleration" presented to him by Puritan ministers in 1609, and recently unearthed in the Archbishop's library at Lambeth (Blackwood's Magazine, September), are both caustic and significant; e.g.: "The too great toleration of you in quene elizabeths tyme hath made you now to be prinkels in our sydes," . . . Too muche lenitie maketh you so proude," "Youre factiose behavioure giveth indeid an excellent relish & advantage to the papistes, and thairfore all such factiose people muste be weadit out of the lande." "I am not to learn axioms of state from such fellowes."

—The Journal of Political Economy for June in the "Symposium on the Teaching of Elementary Economics," contains the following from the pen of Professor Edwin R. A. Seligman upon "The Experience at Columbia." ". . . The Professor gives a lecture once a week, and the sections meet twice a week. The object of the lecture by the professor is to give the students a point of view and to awaken an interest in the subject matter that they are to discuss during the next two sessions. An important change, however, has been brought about by the fact that the quiz work is no longer done by young men of little experience, but by men of considerable experience. Our ideal is to have our teaching done by men of professorial grade; at Columbia we have recently adopted the plan of having teaching professors as well as research professors." This method invites comparison with those suggested in The World's Work for September, in the article by Arthur W. Page, which asks whether or not the colleges are performing their functions.

—James Milne, in the September Fortnightly Review, undertakes the difficult subject of "The Personality of America."

—In the same magazine, the proposal of some enthusiastic motorist to revive the use of the Roman roads of Britain for the motor traffic elicits from Edwin L. Arnold a brief discussion of the old Roman roads, including the art of making them and their significance as an indication of the Roman civilization in Britain: "The (Roman) England of our class-books, in fact, is a clammy place of sunless skies, possessing a scanty population the chase of which supplied their only sport to the exiled soldiers of the Mother City. But this is not the teaching of the silent memorials of a great epoch left to us by time. Who can look at those triumphs of engineering, for instance, which it is proposed to reopen for a modern need and suppose they were designed for the passage of a chance cohort or the necessities of naked villagers?"

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ANSWERS TO INQUIRIES.

EDITED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

British Museum, Etc.

Editor HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Can you inform me upon what conditions readers are admitted to the British Museum and the Public Record Office?—E. P. D.

Answer:—Historians often find it desirable or necessary to consult the manuscript material which is preserved in the British Museum and in the Public Record Office, in London. It may be useful therefore to know under what conditions readers from the United States are permitted to use these collections.

Both the British Museum and the Record Office have a long list of rules concerning the handling of manuscripts; the number of volumes or documents that may be called for at one time, etc. The most important of these rules, however, are those governing admittance.

In the case of the Museum it is required that "Persons desiring to be admitted to the Reading-Room must apply in writing to the Director, specifying their profession or business, their place of abode, and the *particular purpose* for which they seek admission."

Every such application must be made two days at least before admission is required, and must be accompanied by a written recommendation from a householder (whose address can be identified from the ordinary sources of reference, and who must also be a person of recognized position), with full signature and address, stated to be given on personal knowledge of the applicant, and certifying that he or she will make proper use of the Reading-Room.*

Readers were formerly admitted to the Record Office with practically no formalities. By a recent change in the rules, however, it is now necessary for citizens of other countries than Great Britain to be recommended by their respective Embassies to the British Foreign Office, which, on the receipt of such recommendation, will communicate with the authorities of the Record Office requesting that a reader's card be issued to the applicant. The recommendation of the American Embassy is not dependent merely on a personal identification. The Embassy must not only be satisfied that the applicant is the person he claims to be, but also that he is a proper person to be recommended to the British Foreign Office for such privilege to be granted to him. It may be suggested, therefore, that any one who purposes going abroad to work in the Record Office should first inquire of the American Embassy concerning the form of credential that will satisfy them in this respect. They are not hypercritical, but if one's stay in England is a short one, it may be quite impossible to obtain even the

simplest credentials from home in time to be of any service. It may be added that records dated prior to 1800 may be consulted *gratis*. In order to consult records of a later date, it is necessary to pay a fee varying with the number of documents or volumes called for.

Confederate Flag.

Editor HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Why did the Confederate States flag have thirteen stars in it?—A. D. S.

Answer:—On February 9, 1861, the Provisional Congress of the Confederacy appointed a committee of one from each State to take into consideration the adoption of a flag and a seal. The committee made a long report on March 4, 1861, which ended by recommending that the flag consist of a red field with a white space extending horizontally through the center and equal in width to one-third the width of the flag. The red space above and below was to be the same width as the white; the union was to be a blue square extending down through the white space and stopping at the lower red space. In the center of the union was a circle of stars equal in number to the States of the Confederacy. On February 14, 1862, it was agreed to leave the adoption of a flag to the permanent government. While no final action was taken on this report, the design was unofficially adopted, and became the so-called "Stars and Bars."

On the organization of the permanent government, the Confederate House and Senate provided on February 24 and 25, 1862, for a "Joint Committee on Flag and Seal." This committee reported, on April 19, 1862, the following design for a flag: a red field charged with a white saltire, having in the center a sun in its glory on an azure shield, the rays of the sun corresponding to the number of States in the Confederacy.—Journal House of Representatives, C. S. A., 1st Congress, 1st Session, April 19, 1862; Journal Senate, C. S. A., 1st Congress, 1st Session, April 19, 1862.

At the next session on September 5, 1862, the resolutions and reports were referred back to the joint committee by both House

and Senate.—Journal House of Representatives, C. S. A., 1st Congress, 1st Session, September 5, 1862.

At the third session, on April 22, 1863, a new bill was reported from the joint committee, and, after many amendments, the design for the flag was established as follows: the field to be white; the length of the flag to be double the width; the union (now used as a battle flag) to be a square of two-thirds the width of the flag, having the ground red, thereon a saltire of blue, bordered with white and emblazoned with mullets or five-pointed stars corresponding in number to that of the Confederate States.—Journal House of Representatives, C. S. A., 1st Congress, 3rd Session, May 1, 1863.

The Senate accepted certain House amendments to the bill and it was finally passed by both houses and signed by the President of the Confederacy on May 1, 1863.—Journal Senate, C. S. A., 1st Congress, 3rd Session, May 1, 1863.

Until this date there had been apparently no official flag of the Confederacy. The flag named as the battle-flag was the South Carolina flag, the single star which had been in the center of the cross was reduced in size, and three new stars were placed on each arm, making thirteen in all. The two extra stars represented Kentucky and Missouri. These two States never technically seceded, but delegates from them were in the provisional congress of the Confederate States, and also in all the sessions of the First (permanent) Congress, at the third session of which the official flag was adopted. This flag did not, however, prove satisfactory for the Second Congress again took up the question, and passed a bill providing for a new flag. The design of this flag is not set forth in the journal. The bill was signed by President Davis on March 4, 1865. Kentucky and Missouri each had a Senator present at each session of this Congress, and Kentucky sent members of the House of Representatives, so that if any flag was made in accordance with the last bill there would still have been thirteen represented States to have been recognized in its design.

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